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# THE CLEARING HOUSE

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## Editorial

### Social Studies Contribute to American Reconstruction

Most informed people agree that America is undergoing a basic reconstruction in her material and social foundations. Some would like to stay the change while others are eager to push along with more speed and precision. But most agree that whether we like it or not a fundamental change in our coöperative means of producing and consuming the essentials of life is actually confronting us.

There is not the same degree of unanimity of opinion, however, as to the place education should or can play in shaping this reconstruction. Many feel that education, and particularly the schools, must of necessity be an instrumentality for passing on the social heritage; a bulwark of conservatism against short-sighted but well-intentioned social reforms and reformers. The schools, especially in a democracy, should teach youth only those principles which have been tested by time and found to be valid. Many who hold such views deny that the social intelligence of the general population plays a major part in directing the course of human progress. The preservation of our civilization, they hold, is best ensured by developing the proper respect for and knowledge of the great periods of the past.

There is, however, a yeast at work among American educators which produces a significantly different point of view as to the place of education in social progress. This group of educators holds that the schools in a democracy have the unique responsibility

of being the instrument for creative social evolution. The schools are regarded as the proper institution in which to study the realities of our contemporary problems—their origins to be sure, but primarily the various proposals for new and more effective individual and social-problem solutions than the ones which are our inheritance. These educators recognize that the educative process must take its vitality from the dynamic society of which the school is an institution, and they contend that such an educational experience will contribute directly to the shaping of our evolving American civilization by those groups who participate in such educative activities.

In the social studies the curriculum concentrates the experiences of *understanding* and *improving* human relations. The social-studies instruction will undoubtedly be the battle ground for the fight which is bound to come over the issues suggested above. The opening attack by the group which contends that education should participate vitally in shaping social progress has been made by the American Historical Association through its Commission on the Social Studies. This Commission has stated in no equivocal terms its faith in the American democratic principles and in the application of collective intelligence in the achieving of a progressively richer material and spiritual quality of living for each human being. The social-studies instruction they propose is paramount to education which will con-

sciously "indoctrinate" for social evolution. Probably no educational report in our generation will be more discussed or be more influential in changing education from its present apathy to a dynamic and creative force for the realization of higher human values.

This issue of *THE CLEARING HOUSE* presents the opinions of several leaders in American thought on the fundamental issues of education and social reconstruction. Following these "proposals" there are several accounts of situations where the schools are consciously attempting to provide experiences in line with the newer theories of social studies. Obviously, the reports of the

Commission have too recently appeared to have influenced these curricula attempts; but these attempts are believed by some to illustrate to a degree certain of the recommendations of the Commission. In the final analysis, whether or not the schools actually do take a major part in shaping American reconstruction will depend upon the degree to which school teachers become conscious of their task, equip themselves for the work through research and social participation, and then organize educational experiences for youth which will eventually result in the understanding and attitude requisite for the intelligent shaping of our human relations.

P. R. H.

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# The Bearing of Administrative Theory and Practice on Social Education

Jesse H. Newlon<sup>1</sup>

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Jesse H. Newlon has uniquely combined experiences which give him the basis for a statement on the subject of educational administration and American reconstruction. From a practical administrative post of Superintendent of Schools of Denver, Colorado, Dr. Newlon came to the directorship of the Lincoln School where he has continued to develop the essential relationships between school and society.* P. R. H.

## THE SOCIAL IMPLICATIONS OF EDUCATION

WHETHER THE ADMINISTRATOR be aware of the fact or not, every administrative decision in education is made with reference to some social philosophy. The purposes of education, the content of the curriculum, and methods of teaching are always deeply affected by the social outlook of those who have responsibility for the immediate control and administration of the school. Responsibility for social direction the administrator cannot evade, for the alternative is drift, which is a policy even though it be not a consciously accepted one. A policy of drift inevitably means the acceptance of the status quo in education and in American life. These facts are of supreme importance in the present critical period in our national life.

All this demands of the administrator a thorough understanding of social processes, social trends, social problems, social theories, social ideals. The social sciences are the indispensable lamps for illuminating and interpreting these processes, trends, problems, ideals, and proposals.

The rock upon which administration has been in danger of being wrecked is the rock

of the "science" of education. As Professor Dewey has so ably demonstrated, there can be no exact science of education. In his monograph "The Sources of a Science of Education" he says:

The assumption, if only tacit, that educational science has its own peculiar subject matter results in an isolation which makes the latter a "mystery" in the sense in which the higher crafts were once mysteries. A superficial token of this isolation is found in the development of that peculiar terminology that has been called "pedageese." Segregation also accounts for the tendency, already mentioned, to go at educational affairs without a sufficient grounding in the noneducational disciplines that must be drawn upon, and hence to exaggerate minor points in an absurdly one-sided way, and to grasp at some special scientific technique as if its use were a magical guarantee of a scientific product.

The attempt to make of education and of educational administration an exact science ignores basic facts concerning the nature and purpose of education and its control.

With its attention riveted on techniques developed by the application of the methods of the physical sciences to the more obvious and less difficult problems in the management of schools, school administration has in large measure failed in this century to sense its broader social responsibilities. The social and educational understanding and outlook and methodology which the administrator brings to his work make all the difference in the world, and is, in fact, one of the most crucial factors in determining the course of education in the United States. What, then, are the fields of study that will contribute most towards supplying this needed background?

First, perhaps, should be mentioned history both in the broadest sense and in certain specialized aspects—the history of cul-

<sup>1</sup> This article is in large part an adaptation of certain paragraphs from the author's new book, *Educational Administration as Social Policy*, one of the volumes of the report of the American Historical Association Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools. The volumes of this report are published by Charles Scribner's Sons.

tures, of politics, of economic and social processes and institutions, of thought and intellectual processes, of education. History, indeed, runs through all the other social sciences. It is frequently the only principle that gives a semblance of rationality and order to human experience.

Next might be mentioned anthropology. In no national educational system are the findings of the anthropologists more pertinent to the work of the teacher or of the educational administrator than in America. Ours is a heterogeneous population composed of many racial and national strains, each with its own cultural history and background. American life and American education bristle with problems that arise from these racial differences. Anthropology has much to teach the administrator about many problems of American life, about the effects of the frontier, of industrialism, about racial groups, changing social and moral concepts and practices, crime, the effects of various types of environment—much about the educative process itself.

The central problems of American life in this century are industrial, economic, social. Industrial and economic changes have wrought far-reaching social changes that have affected every department of life, from morals to the size of families. Education is a part of the socio-economic process and can never be dissociated from it. The broad fields of sociology and economics are then basic, and will always be far more fruitful objects of study for the prospective administrator than many that have occupied his attention in recent years. To point to the failures of economists and sociologists in assisting us to understand the baffling problems of the present time in no way invalidates the contention. The educational leader should be familiar with the methods used by the economist and sociologist, with the great classics in these fields, and with those writings most pertinent to his own work. He should have at his command a body of economic and social facts that will enable him

to see fairly clearly the social and economic processes and problems that affect and involve education. The same can be said of politics and political science.

In the highest sense, the educational leader is engaged in political leadership. He may even rise to the level of statesmanship. The school system is itself a function of the political state, created in part to guarantee the effective functioning of a political order. But since no social, economic, or political order can remain static, the direction which change shall take and the extent to which it can be influenced by education becomes one of the greatest of political problems. The educational leader must be conversant with what the student of politics has learned with reference to these matters.

Finally, the educational leader must know something of philosophy, must have some critical understanding and appreciation of the great systems of thought that have been evolved in the western world, and of contemporary philosophic thought. Education can be intelligently ordered only in accordance with some conception of what constitutes the good life, of the possibilities of the good life on this continent. Education will be most effective when it is directed to the achievement of a better life, the outlines of which are clearly seen. America seems to be moving in the direction of a planned economy and an extension of national control of production and distribution. But within the framework of such a broad social purpose the range of choices is very wide. One of the major functions of philosophy is the evaluation of these choices. The school administrator should know where he stands with reference to the various schools of political, economic, social, and philosophic thought.

#### THE SOCIAL IDEAS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

If school administration were a mere problem in business or technical management, the social ideas of the administrator



would be of little importance. An examination of the textbooks on the subject and of courses offered in school administration reveals that little attention has been given to social problems of education in this century. Attention has been directed primarily to technical problems—to finance, buildings, accounting, personnel, administrative organization, supervision. That these problems are important no one would question, but if school administration is a form of statecraft, an overemphasis on its purely technical aspects to the neglect of its social implications cannot but have grave consequences.

What have actually been the social ideas of American educators? The limits of space permit but the briefest comment. When our State systems of free schools were being established a century ago, educational leadership rose to the level of the highest social statesmanship. The idea of free schools was a radical idea, even though the establishment of free schools was but the tangible realization of one of the promises of the American Revolution. The great leaders in the establishment of free schools—men like Horace Mann—were numbered among the social and political liberals of their time. Many of the conservatives of his day considered Mann a dangerous radical.

In the years when the superstructure of our school system was being erected on the foundation that was laid by Mann and Barnard and their contemporaries, administrators became conservative. It is true that they accepted democracy and worked in the democratic tradition. It is true that they looked upon education as an instrument for social regeneration. They were sensitive to many of the ills of society, but they did not speak out boldly against them as did Mann in his day against the labor conditions under the rising factory system and against chattel slavery. Administrators of this middle period were humanitarians, but they were very conservative in their political and economic outlook. They accepted laissez-faire individualism without question. They

were critical of the militant labor movement of the last quarter of the nineteenth century and had little sympathy with the agrarian discontent that flamed forth in those years. William T. Harris and most of his leading contemporaries, notwithstanding the great services which they performed for American education, were staunch defenders of the political and economic status quo. The notable exception was Colonel Francis Parker. Although Parker never very clearly expressed his views in writing, he was nevertheless distinctly a social liberal as he was an educational liberal, and his influence in freeing the American school from outworn educational concepts was very great.

Two quotations from textbooks on school administration that appeared in the early years of this century illustrate the contentment of the administrator with the status quo. In 1905 William E. Chancellor in *Our Schools, Their Administration and Supervision* said:

We have carried our teaching of reading to such an extent that men and women at home are wasting their time reading newspapers and worthless books, when they might better be spending their time as do the people on the same economic plane in the Old World; namely, in making articles of usefulness in the household. To be particular, there are a great many poor workingmen who read newspapers all the evening when they might better be making household furniture.

About the same time, Dutton and Snedden in the *Administration of Public Education in the United States* said of the attitude of the less privileged classes in society towards education:

Here is one channel through which the unused increment of wealth flows back to the toiler who has helped produce that wealth. No other institution tends to *soothe and allay the suspicion felt by the wage earner towards capital* as does the fact that his children's schools provide what he could not pay for, and for those great benefits capital is heavily taxed.<sup>3</sup>

It would be interesting to know to what extent the failure of Americans of our genera-

<sup>3</sup> *Italics mine.*—J. H. N.

tion to understand contemporary social and economic problems is due to their conditioning in the schools of a generation or more ago.

The last fifty years have witnessed an amazing increase of enrollment in secondary schools, in colleges and universities, in schools of all kinds. By the end of the period a million professional workers were engaged in education. The problems of providing the necessary *matériel* and personnel for this rapidly increasing enrollment were tremendous and chiefly engaged the attention of school administrators. This was the period, too, of the rise of the scientific or efficiency movement in education following upon the heels of the emergence of the efficiency expert in the business world. Educational administrators were greatly intrigued by the new devices for classifying, for testing, and measuring efficiency. Absorbed in these material and technical problems, most of them failed to observe most ominous social and economic developments. An examination of the addresses and other writings of school executives in this period reveals that the great body of them continued to accept and vigorously defend "rugged individualism" and all that went with it. A few, carrying on the Mann-Parker tradition, made searching analyses of the social situation that would do credit to the ablest men in the social sciences in our universities and colleges.

With the deepening crisis following 1929, an increasing number of school executives have grown more and more critical of things as they are. At the Minneapolis meeting of the Department of Superintendence there was much plain talking even on the main program of the convention. Some of the speeches and committee reports and some of the resolutions adopted were truly reminiscent of the utterances of Horace Mann and the other great liberals who laid the foundations of the American system of education. In these years a rapidly growing number of school executives have asserted that our economic and social difficulties are due in con-

siderable measure to the failure of our educational system to give the youth of the country a realistic understanding of social and economic conditions and trends. But at the 1934 Cleveland meeting of the superintendents, pessimism had been replaced by optimism. There was practically no plain talking by the educators on the main program of the convention. It looked as if there was a studied attempt to evade these critical issues. This fact should be pondered by every student of education and every school executive in this country.

#### A DEMOCRATIC THEORY OF ADMINISTRATION

What is needed is a new concept of school administration. It is impossible to outline a theory of administration here, but two vital considerations are clear. The new theory of administration must be founded on a democratic social philosophy that accords with the facts and possibilities of the age of industrialism and of collectivism in economy. It must assign a much more important rôle to the teacher.

If the American public school is to become an effective instrument in enabling the American people "to become the masters rather than the victims of destiny" and "to plan and direct a national existence" in the "first revolutionary age in which the masses of men consciously participate in government,"<sup>8</sup> then a more important, a more truly professional status must be assigned the teacher if he is to share in the task of outlining for this country an educational policy in keeping with our highest conception of the civilization that may be achieved in the United States. Participation in such a creative enterprise is impossible for the teacher whose thinking is all done for him by the "higher-ups" in the school system, whose teaching is subjected to a mechanical type of direction or supervision according to standards which he had no part in devising.

<sup>8</sup> Walter Lippmann, as quoted in Jesse H. Newlon, *Educational Administration as Social Policy*, Chapter IV (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934).

If teachers are to participate in the formulation of policies, then the old concept of administration as nothing more than expert management under which all important decisions are made by the board of directors upon the recommendation of the executive, acting on his own responsibility and without obligation to consult others, must be consigned to oblivion. A program that accords a truly professional status to teachers imposes a much more difficult and challenging task on the administrator.

A new outlook on the part of both administrator and teacher is required. And it cannot be too strongly emphasized that only through a larger participation in policy-making can the teacher become more effective in terms of the social objectives of education. As Professor Kilpatrick has said:

To think for teachers so that they do not think for themselves is to cut the tap root of education. Only those who themselves think responsibly can be expected to guide the learning process with full, rounded, social, educative effect.

#### THE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE SOCIAL-STUDIES CURRICULUM

What is the conclusion of the whole matter in its bearing on the reconstruction of the social-studies curriculum? Unless those who administer our public schools can comprehend that social education is the heart of the whole educational problem and act accordingly and most vigorously, there is no hope that American education will play a constructive rôle in preparing the next generation for the gigantic task of social reconstruction which they face.

The curriculum-revision movement which was getting under way before the World War and which gained great momentum in the 'twenties, has some worth-while achievements to its credit. In some school systems teachers have been drawn more largely into the process of formulating policies, while the focus of attention has been shifted somewhat from the technical and mechanical aspects of education to more fundamental

issues. In a few communities substantial appropriations were made for the improvement of instruction. Teaching in the social studies and in other fields has been improved and given new direction in many schools. And yet little that was truly fundamental was accomplished in these twenty years. The great mass of American schools have been but little affected and even in the more progressive schools but few far-reaching changes have been effected.

We can see quite clearly now some of the elements that were lacking in this movement. The profession of education had not as yet fashioned a forward-looking social philosophy based on a thorough analysis and evaluation of the American tradition and of contemporary social trends. The Social Studies Commission has squarely faced this issue, and its summary volume should go far to give direction and purpose to the reconstruction of social education in the next decade. Some of the other elements that have been lacking have been discussed in the preceding paragraphs. The teacher had not been given an adequate status in the school system. Administrators were absorbed with technical matters. Leadership both in the schools and in the teacher-training institutions was for three decades largely indifferent to the tremendous social problems of the time. So far as their working capital of social ideas was concerned, most educational leaders had acquired little beyond what they inherited from the time, a century ago, when our free schools were being established in a relatively simple agrarian civilization.

The next few years will probably determine whether the men who now hold positions of leadership and authority in school administration can rise to the social responsibilities imposed on them by the present critical period. The alternatives are educational stagnation or indescribable confusion, or the usurpation of the direction of education by fascists who will know exactly what they want and who will violate every cherished democratic tradition.

# Some Curriculum Developments in Los Angeles

W. B. Featherstone

EDITOR'S NOTE: *W. B. Featherstone is director of Secondary Curriculum Development in the Los Angeles city schools.*

IT IS RISKY BUSINESS counting educational chickens before they are hatched; especially if there is the slightest suspicion that your ideological eggs are possibly half baked to begin with. The following discussion, therefore, is frankly more a description of things hoped for than things seen; of lines of action being followed rather than results actually achieved. The effort will be made, however, to convey the impression that the lines of action are being followed in at least some of the classrooms of the city and not just in the offices of supervisors and directors.

Many circumstances favor the development of progressive educational practices in Los Angeles, but there are, nevertheless, many obstacles which stand in the way. Large classes, increased teaching load, budgetary reductions, and the unwillingness of universities to set aside tradition and academic precedents are universal complaints these days. And so, if there are any features of more than ordinary merit or interest in current developments in Los Angeles, these are due primarily to the belief of our teachers that they ought to carry on the most progressive kind of teaching they can under the prevailing conditions, disturbing and annoying as they are.

There is at present neither a uniform system of educational beliefs among all the schools of the city nor a standardized procedure for carrying out even the beliefs that are generally accepted. Our high schools as a group are still more a collection of individuals than a system. Individual schools tend to retain a good deal of local autonomy, and,

while it has some advantages, this prevents carrying out any given plan or policy in a uniform way. The term "integration" has many of our teachers by the ears. It means a great many different things to a great many different persons. Little by little, however, there are beginning to emerge some fairly clear-cut principles of action and standards of criticism of what is being done.

Except for small groups, the teachers of Los Angeles do not hold any deep-rooted belief, as some well-known advocates of reform would have them do, so that it is either desirable or necessary to cast aside the whole existing scheme of secondary education and start over again. They are, however, beginning to see more plainly than they have heretofore the meaning of the one inescapable sociological fact which probably has greatest significance for secondary education; namely, the fact that the high schools are part and parcel of the common school system attended by practically all the children of all the people. This fact demands an entirely different point of view regarding the aims and purposes of the secondary school from the one to which teachers of the old school were accustomed. It is difficult indeed for some to admit that this is the case.

The acceptance of this inescapable condition is making it easier for teachers to adapt their teaching to the obvious needs and capacities of their pupils without feeling that they are committing an unpardonable sin or doing violence to hoary tradition. Some, at least, are beginning to see that differentiation between the broad basic or general social, cultural, recreational, or citizenship needs of the whole population and the highly restricted and specialized needs of small segments of the population can be accom-



plished only by selection and reorganization of elements from all recognized fields of human learning and experience. They see, faintly as yet, that this procedure must be used rather than the usual one of allocating certain subjects in their entirety to the basic or constant side of the curriculum.

All the lines of action that are now being followed are, of course, decidedly tentative—perhaps opportunistic—but it is confidently believed that all of them will in time lead by an orderly development to a quite clearly conceived notion of what a modern program of secondary education should be. Whatever else it may contain, this general scheme quite clearly does not include any deep-seated conviction that the public-school system can assume the responsibility by direct action or indoctrination of shaping the course of development of the social and economic systems of the whole world. Perhaps our teachers are not very ambitious. They are at least realistic. They are content to aim a little lower and perhaps accomplish more.

In brief, our program seems to be tending towards a rather middle-of-the-road "broad fields" type of curriculum at the lower or junior-high-school level and a modified subject curriculum at the upper levels. This modification provides for courses of rather generalized and less technical character to meet the generalized and social needs of pupils who do not have either the ability or the interest to pursue the parallel courses of rather specialized and more highly technical character in the conventional fields. The idea of a unified or "integrated" curriculum on the secondary level has some following. Most teachers are anxious to make their teaching integrative in effect as rapidly as they learn how, or learn to recognize an integrated personality when they see one.

To be a bit more specific, the following paragraphs probably outline the highlights of current or more recent developments.

*English.* A general program for the reorganization of instruction in English has been in process of development since last year.

Although no far-reaching changes have been made as yet, the program does anticipate some changes which we hope may become effective in time. In brief, these contemplate that English and the other social studies will become much more closely articulated and work much more definitely for a common purpose than they have in the past; that cultural orientation and socialization will become the major emphasis in these two fields; and that the academic scholarship features of both fields will be greatly subordinated in the future. These two fields will become very largely the core curriculum of the whole school—at least so far as the study of human institutions and achievements is concerned. As such there will be certain contributions from the fields of art, music, science, and the like. But no field is to be made wholly subordinate to another. No subject is to be sold out to another.

A few outlines of units of work for the new program have been prepared and are being tried out in different schools. Several others are in course of preparation. They will be made available to all teachers as rapidly as it becomes feasible definitely to shift the whole English program over to the new base.

The teaching of grammar, spelling, and other language mechanics is discussed in season and out on its merits and otherwise. The committee now at work in this field has been able to delete a very large percentage of the materials from our current grammar and composition books on the simple grounds that only that should be taught which really functions. The work of this committee gives large promise of success in dealing with that very knotty problem of how to keep the teaching of skills an integral part of the content features of the program without killing interest or failing to provide adequate drill.

*Social Studies.* A group of teachers is working with their supervisor on the development of a new syllabus or outline for one phase of the social-studies program on the eleventh-year level. This outline approaches



the study of American life and civilization from the so-called "problem" angle. There are many ways of developing a problem course. Even the staunchest advocates of strict chronological sequence can rationalize their stand by a pseudoproblem approach. But often what happens is that pupils are asked to solve over again the problems of their fathers without much thought being given to solving problems of a modern day. This group of teachers is trying to get away from pseudoproblems or vicarious problems and to deal with real ones by studying the historical development of aspects of modern life which are real and crucial in their present importance. In spite of their dismay at the immaturity of large numbers of our eleventh-year students, the committee believes this approach has many advantages over the more conventional one. The empirical process of developing a course of study is being used in order that procedures and problems may be well adapted to the character of our school populations and to the resources of our bookrooms and libraries.

Work has also been started on the revision of some of the courses in social studies at other levels. At present the teachers and supervisors are busy assembling materials and preparing preliminary outlines of units to parallel those being developed in the English field in connection with the future program of cultural orientation and socialization. The seventh and eighth years dealing with some aspects of the American scene are the point of attack, but the program is not very far advanced. Several junior high schools have been given freedom to experiment more or less on their own initiative in this connection. Even though some of these experiments seem a bit fantastic to more conventional souls, we believe a certain amount of freedom is a good antidote to the customary wails about too much central supervision. Freedom is greatly sought after until one has to accept responsibility.

*Science and Mathematics.* The special point of reference for activities in the field of science at the present time is the course

in general science now offered in the ninth year. A group of teachers from several junior high schools is working with one of the supervisors in developing a new syllabus for this course. Briefly, the aim is to work out a more psychological sequence of experiences in the field of general science which will offset what seems to be a real weakness in most general science textbooks; namely, that they are sketchy, sporadic, or overcrowded with unrelated details and too technical in treatment. It is expected that this new outline will become the foundation of a three-year sequence in general science which may be worked into the basic required program of all junior-high-school pupils.

A somewhat similar project is under way for an advanced course in general science (physical science) for upper-grade use. This sort of course has been available in a few schools in the past, but it has not proved very satisfactory. There seems to be a genuine need of a course which is more general in character of content and less technical in treatment than the usual courses in physics and chemistry. This project is only in the preliminary stages, but several teachers are now at work developing suitable content and method for the new units.

Closely related to the work in science is that in general mathematics. Here again a group of teachers from several schools is working with the supervisors in developing a new syllabus for a ninth-grade course in general mathematics. This course is in no sense a substitute for the course in ninth-grade algebra. It is being developed as a terminal course in general mathematics for pupils who wish another year's work in this field beyond the eighth grade but who are not interested in studying formal mathematics for the sake of mathematics itself. The approach in this course is decidedly practical and, we think, psychologically sound. Instead of starting with the assumption that there are formal principles of mathematics to be taught and then selecting more or less practical subject matter to teach these principles, this course starts ex-

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actly the other way around. It proceeds from the assumption that there are many important social studies and scientific and practical-arts problems which lend themselves to the teaching of the desired mathematical processes and principles and whose content is of great value and interest to ninth-grade pupils. The teacher then proceeds to teach those processes and principles of mathematics which are found essential to a satisfactory development of the content in its practical-arts, science, or social-studies aspects. Such a course may come to look more like junior business training, or some kind of mathematical social studies, but that does not disturb us. In fact we rather hope it will come to have that appearance.

*Modern Language.* So far as actual course-of-study revision or construction is concerned, little is being done in this field. A committee is at work studying the modern language situation so that we may have some basic assumptions from which to work in the future. The reason for this is that there is at present some disarticulation and maladjustment between the junior high schools and senior high schools in modern language teaching. This brave committee has taken a stand against the fifteen-minute-a-day optimists as well as against the defeatists who seemed badly frightened by the "fads-and-frills" bogey. Whether their realism will be strong enough to offset the "try-anything-once" attitude of our juveniles remains, of course, to be seen.

*Special Schools and Classes.* Work now in progress for slow-learning pupils in the secondary schools varies widely, most of it being advanced through supervisory activities rather than through more formal courses of study writing. Teachers who have been accustomed to the more formal subjects of the usual high-school program are making tentative beginnings in a freer and more definitely socialized type of work by carrying on their teaching largely through projects involving a much greater amount of pupil activity. Some teachers are carrying on work which

represents a very broad basis of fusion or unification of materials from several subject fields. Others are working rather definitely from an occupational point of view, developing manual skills with definite employment objectives. Teachers are beginning to learn that with this type of pupil the so-called "integrated" program is practically essential because of psychological factors. The fact that these pupils learn less readily and that they lack transfer ability, perspective, or standards of critical judgment requires a teacher to go slowly enough so that every detail of development can be observed in process. A visit to one of these classes often helps teachers to gain an insight into the basic principles of the informal program which they cannot readily gain from observation of a class of normal or bright pupils.

There are many other curriculum developments which deserve comment, but neither space nor the reader's good nature will permit more than passing notice. Suffice it to say that many teachers and their supervisors in the fields of art and music, industrial and household arts, and commercial studies are aware of the unrest and questioning attitudes that prevail everywhere with respect to educational matters. If Rome burns they will not be caught fiddling. Then, too, there are certain aspects of the curriculum which inevitably pervade and influence all teaching. Such things as character education, marking systems, student self-government, and the like, come quickly to the fore, demanding attention which must be denied them for the present.

All scientifically minded persons will, of course, quickly sense the difference between work undertaken and results achieved. They will not expect proof of achievements until a decent period of time has elapsed in which both good and bad may have a chance to come out. Especially will they refrain from asking for the charts and specifications of an enterprise of which the plans are largely the preserved record of yesterday's successful cuttings and tryings.

# Social Studies in Wilmington, Delaware

L. Thomas Hopkins

EDITOR'S NOTE: *L. Thomas Hopkins has served as curriculum consultant to a large number of school systems in this country. For the last two years, he has been consultant to the schools of Wilmington, Delaware, where the program discussed in this article was developed.* P. R. H.

AFTER MUCH preliminary consideration by the board of education, administrative officials, and members of the teaching staff, the Wilmington program of curriculum revision leading to the formulation of a new social-studies program was launched in the fall of 1931. Eighty-eight students were registered at their own expense in an extramural course from Teachers College, Columbia University, with the author of this report as the instructor. The work of the two semesters of this first year was devoted to a study of the changing world—economic, social, aesthetic, religious—the relationship between these changes in society and the need for curriculum revision, the newer psychologies of learning with particular emphasis upon the contrasts between the atomistic and organismic types, static and dynamic philosophies of education, and basic curriculum principles and procedures. The classroom technique exemplified the organismic psychology and dynamic philosophy which the teacher would use with her own children in the classroom. The end product was a series of reports from various committees, later summarized by the instructor in a single document, making recommendations as to basic philosophy of education, psychology of learning, program of studies, and the application of these in an initial venture in curriculum revision through the social studies.

Meantime, the superintendent of schools with the advice of his administrative cabinet had formulated plans for the administration of a curriculum-revision program based up-

on the immediate and future needs of Wilmington. After considering the recommendations from the extramural class, the administrative cabinet recommended the organization of a curriculum cabinet with a director of curriculum as its head, and a concentrated effort to revise the social studies the following school year.

In the fall of 1933, teachers, supervisors, and administrators enrolled at their own expense in the extramural course to the number of 179. For the first few months the writer acted as leader in the study of social-studies curriculum problems. The class was then divided into grade production committees, and other instructors were called in to assist in directing the activities of the various groups. Working individually these committees studied techniques and concepts necessary to the organization of a social-studies program. The result was a series of recommendations by grades, later formulated into the techniques and concepts which form the warp of the social-studies program. Lacking information as to children's interests and activities at different year levels, special committees were appointed to study these interests for the entire system. Their reports gave the basis for the selection of units for each year, or the woof of the program structure.

The committees agreed that the social studies "comprise all of those meanings, informations, skills, and techniques necessary to the development of higher standards of social living in a modern industrial age. As such they include all aspects of living which adults usually classify under history, geography, government, economics, psychology, sociology, and philosophy. They are not taught in the separate adult-centered fields, since children do not acquire experiences in social living in this logically organ-

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ized plan. Contrariwise, they are concerned with aiding pupils at any grade level to increase growth in the area and depth of social meanings, informations, skills, and techniques in those centers of social experience of immediate interest to the learner and of recognized social significance."<sup>1</sup>

The concepts selected were democracy—social, economic, political; interdependence, including adaptation to and control of environment; and migration of peoples in search of better conditions of living.

The techniques agreed upon were:

1. Using sources of materials peculiar to the social studies, such as reference books, maps, globes, charts, graphs, pictures, relics, through such activities as excursions, group discussions, reading, outlining, note taking, interpretation, and summarization.

2. Interpreting social problems through intelligent thinking, to include such processes as selecting worth-while problems, collecting and organizing materials, evaluating sources, outlining and summarizing, presenting and discussing conclusions in both oral and written expression, compiling pertinent bibliographies, and documenting statements wherever necessary.

3. Developing a time and space sense through time lines, chronological perspective, map scales, and judging distance.

4. Utilizing objective procedures in the understanding, interpretation, and integration of life today by approaching the solution of current problems in so far as possible without emotional bias.

5. Developing good study habits, which include not only sound psychology of learning, but also budgeting the time of the individual, so that his work in social studies and in all other important life activities may not be neglected.

6. Promoting increased facility in expressing ideas with a wide variety of materials in various media, using sand, clay, paper, wood, with crayon, pencil, paint brush, and other tools.

The areas of social experience related to child interest as originally selected for each grade follow. One year of teaching, however, has brought a demand for integration of geography and history, longer units, and the revision of experience areas to meet more adequately the interests of children.

A revision of this program will be undertaken in the fall of 1934.

*Kindergarten and first grade*—Home and closely related community life

*Second grade*—Community life, emphasizing interdependence of communities with respect to economic groups

*Third grade*—Primitive man and people of other lands

*Fourth-grade history*—The problems of European explorers and colonists living in a wilderness country, emphasizing migration resulting from a desire for economic advancement, adaptation of former customs and modes of life to new environment and struggle to achieve the right to control of government

*Fourth-grade geography*—Adaptation of people to various types of physical environment, such as tropical desert, coast lands, lowlands, highlands, and polar regions

*Fifth-grade history*—Life in a new nation under conditions of increased interdependence, resulting from improved methods of transportation, communication, and control of living conditions through the use of new discoveries and inventions

*Fifth-grade geography*—The effect of the physical environment upon the industrial and social development of the United States and its possessions

*Sixth-grade history*—The cultural heritage of America and its influence upon American institutions

*Sixth-grade geography*—Geographical factors contributing to the social, economic, and cultural development of Europe and Asia

*Seventh-grade history*—Expansion of European civilization into the New World and the beginning of American culture

*Seventh-grade geography*—The contributions of southern lands to world civilization

*Eighth-grade history*—Big movements in American history as they are reflected in the extension of the frontier, the development from an agricultural to an industrial nation, the welding together of people of many lands, the increasing interdependence of peoples, and the growth of political and social democracy

*Eighth-grade geography*—The problems of living as they are a result of natural environment

*Ninth-grade history*—Introduction to social, economic, and civic problems of American life through an understanding of how people by co-operative efforts are making their communities and their country a better place in which to live

*Tenth-grade history*—The development of ancient

<sup>1</sup>Quoted from introduction to tentative courses of study in mimeographed form for local use only.



and world history as a means of interpreting large movements in modern civilization

*Eleventh-grade history*—Important factors in the development of American life from the Colonial days to modern world influence

*Twelfth-grade history*—Social and economic problems of American democracy

Within each area selected for each grade a number of units from six to eighteen weeks in length was suggested and grade committees immediately undertook the preliminary preparation of such units. Instructions for form and writing of units were as follows:

In final form the social-studies units for all grades will contain the following divisions:

1. Overview, written in narrative form
2. Approaches, in outline narrative form
3. Major problems, to include
  - a) Activities
  - b) Content and references for pupils
  - c) Materials
4. Culminating activities, in outline narrative form
  - a) This includes tests to measure outcomes
5. Children should show growth in
  - a) Understandings
  - b) Information
  - c) Techniques

This should be written in outline form.

6. Bibliography for teachers, in outline form

A convenient order for writing the unit is:

1. Major problems with the content, activities, and materials
2. The areas in which children should show growth, emphasizing first, the understandings; second, the information; and third, the techniques
3. The approaches to the unit

4. The culminating activities
5. The narrative overview
6. The bibliography for teachers

By June 1933, the first draft of all units for the primary grades and one half of those for the remaining grades were completed. In the fall of 1933 all members of the intermediate, junior- and senior-high-school groups continued their work on units, either as enrolled students in the regular extramural course or in outside groups. They completed the preliminary draft of all units in February 1934.

The units already developed in the spring of 1933 were tried out in selected schools in the fall of 1933. Each teacher engaged in the tryout submitted a special report giving information valuable in revising the general program and rewriting units in the fall of 1934. The entire program will be installed in the school system as rapidly as possible.

Some important ideas in the Wilmington program are:

1. The approach, emphasizing the larger educational whole before considering the smaller social studies
2. The method, demonstrating the same psychology of learning which the teacher should use with her pupils in the classroom
3. The design, stressing intelligent flexibility of functional movement of the learner in the improvement of social living in an industrial age
4. The structure, utilizing concepts and techniques to form the warp, with social experience and child interest as the woof
5. The units, constructed in consonance with the accepted philosophy and psychology
6. The financial support, maintained personally by members of the educational staff

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# Art and Social Studies

T. Karl Kurzband

EDITOR'S NOTE: *T. Karl Kurzband has been an art teacher at the Lincoln School during the past year. In this article he presents a challenging point of view which differs from the traditional art curriculum.*

P. R. H.

IN RECENT YEARS a growing number of art critics and historians have made us aware that the best key to the understanding of the art of any society lies in the understanding of the basic political, economic, and social institutions of that society. At the same time there are many historians and other social scientists who assert that no picture of a society is complete without a study of its art forms, since it is through art that the aspirations and achievements of that society are most vividly expressed.

Alert teachers of the social studies have long known that their courses have been enriched by reference to art forms, particularly as visual material. They know that in some cases virtually all our knowledge of certain societies comes from the study of their art—for instance, the civilizations of ancient Crete or of the Mayans. Even for those periods of which written records are available, these teachers have learned how much more vivid the study of history can be when they may refer to the architecture, painting, sculpture, graphic arts, and the arts and crafts of daily life.

An examination of recent courses of study reveals that this use of art content is increasing through such devices as units, integrated courses, experiments in correlation, etc. For example, in a study of medieval Europe, a thorough course includes an acquaintance with the outstanding cathedrals, castles, and monasteries of the period, the sculpture and stained glass of the cathedrals, the illuminated manuscripts, and the various minor arts and crafts. These are studied through such activities as museum trips, slide talks,

movies, exhibits, lectures, readings, and reports. Discussion centers around the people and scenes depicted, the purpose for which these works of art were intended, and their effect on the life and institutions of the period.

A knowledge of the period is expanded through the use of graphic techniques. Sketches are made at museums, models constructed, illustrated maps, time lines, charts, and pictorial statistics drawn. These are supplemented by more creative activities such as original sculpture using medieval themes, original designs and execution of stained glass windows and illuminated manuscripts, and designing of stage sets and costumes for plays.

For the present the greatest success in correlating social studies with art has been in the study of past eras or foreign civilizations. In the study of our own contemporary civilization there has been some success in utilizing art in units dealing with single aspects of our culture, such as transportation, housing, records, etc. As yet there have been few attempts to incorporate the study of art into courses dealing with the total picture of American civilization. When such integrated courses will be constructed, it will be found that art will have a place in every aspect of the course.

In studying the political institutions of our country, such factors might enter as the use of political cartoons in forming public opinion; the use of posters in national campaigns (the World War, the NRA); the reasons for the selection of certain types of architecture in government buildings, the regulation of architecture by law ("setback" and its influence on the skyscraper); monuments to political and military heroes; encouragement of fine arts by the government (public-works art project); and the various

town and regional planning projects undertaken by governmental agencies.

In studying our economic structure we could learn how an economy based on private profit makes use of art. In advertising art, for instance, it is obvious that the desire to stimulate sales has kept art achievement in this field at a very low point. Similarly, when the National Alliance of Art and Industry urges manufacturers to employ artists to design their products, its strongest appeal is that it is a short road to greater profits. Although there are many achievements to record in this field, unfortunately here, as in advertising art, the search for novelty and sensationalism is not always conducive to the best results from an artistic point of view. The skyscraper, America's foremost art contribution to date, should also be studied in terms of economics—the need for centralization, land values, etc.

The study of art in relation to contemporary social and cultural conditions in America might first concern itself with the extent to which art affects the lives of the American people. An attempt might be made to account for the wide variation in artistic taste between the large majority who come into contact with art chiefly through comic strips, illustrations, and advertising art of the newspapers and cheaper magazines, and a favored few who can indulge their interest in art through private collections of masterpieces. In considering art as a potential leisure-time activity, such questions can be raised as the reason for the relatively small attendance at public museums. Under what conditions will it be possible to convince Americans that creative art activity, now looked upon as a special dispensation to a gifted few, is an experience that may be enjoyed by virtually every normal human being? Obviously such questions can be fully dealt with only in terms of larger issues such as the present distribution of wealth, the living standards of the large masses, working conditions, unemployment, and the various other factors

that enter into a total picture of the contemporary American scene.

Overshadowing all these problems is the increasing concern with the issues involved in the quest for a new social order—a quest which has been voiced from the White House as well as on the street and in the schoolroom. More and more, social-studies teachers are finding that these issues are a legitimate and essential aspect of their courses. Coöperation between the social-studies and art departments may be impeded, however, by the traditional attitude of some art teachers that art must not be confused with propaganda. This is an exceedingly shortsighted point of view. Propaganda in the truest sense of the word characterizes the greatest works of art in every period. The Pyramids, the Parthenon, the Colosseum, Santa Sophia, Chartres, the frescoes of Giotto, the royal portraits of Velasquez and Van Dyke, the portraits of Dutch burghers by Rembrandt and his contemporaries, Versailles and the Eiffel Tower are all works of propaganda—propaganda for a stable and flourishing society and for the ideals through which the dominant group or institution maintained and extended its power.

However, when a society is in a process of decay, when the old ideals no longer inspire loyalty and when the ruling group is forced to resort to oppression and demagoguery in order to remain in power, the artist as propagandist is faced with a threefold choice. If he is primarily interested in his economic position he will continue to serve the ruling power however cynical he may become about its ideals. If he so intensely disapproves of the evils fostered by the ruling group that he can no longer continue to serve it, he may retreat to his studio to concern himself with the timeless problems of technique and with the tribulations of his soul. This was the solution of Rembrandt in the latter part of his career and of Cezanne and his successors of the "modern" school.

Or he may pursue a third course, using his art to attack the corrupt elements of his society and perhaps to indicate new paths.

The artists who have made this last choice have a long tradition. Among the earliest examples of which we have a record is the art of the Catacombs. Here the early Christian artists put into graphic and therefore easily understandable form the story of the founding of Christianity. These pictures were undoubtedly used as propaganda to win over the oppressed and disillusioned masses of the Roman Empire to the new faith. Over a thousand years later, when the ideals and practices of medieval Christianity were beginning to be widely questioned in Northern Europe, we find sculptors making satiric images of clergymen in obscure nooks of Gothic cathedrals. When the Reformation began in earnest, Luther was aided by woodcuts of Dürer and many of his contemporaries in his attacks on the Catholic church. Dürer also made woodcuts (which developed as a medium because of the need for widespread circulation) espousing the cause of the peasant revolts.

During the American Revolution of 1776 and the French Revolution of 1789, cartoons were already recognized as an effective weapon of propaganda on the side of the revolutionary forces. In the late eighteenth century, Goya was forced to flee from Spain because he did a set of etchings on "The Disasters of War" in which he pictured his protest against the evils of war for which the ruling house of Spain was responsible. Delacroix drew the inspiration for one of his famous paintings, "Liberty on the Barricades," from the Revolution of 1830. Daumier, one of the greatest of nineteenth-century painters, is perhaps best known for his satiric and revolutionary lithographs, one of which, a satire on the king, brought him a jail sentence. In America, Thomas

Nast, one of the most famous of American cartoonists, used his cartoons as a weapon to oust the notorious Tweed ring. Today, when there are new groups and new ideals to challenge the old, a growing number of artists are taking their place in this tradition.

There are many who believe that the school must concern itself with the vital problems of social change facing us today. If this belief is justified, then every factor that can be of assistance in directing these changes into the proper channels should be utilized by the schools in preparing future citizens for constructive action. In such a situation the art department can serve in two ways. First, art may be used to clarify and present in a vivid fashion the true facts of our present situation through such devices as pictorial statistics (especially the excellent examples first produced by Dr. Neurath of Vienna), illustrated charts, maps, diagrams, time lines, etc. Secondly, the issues involved in our present crisis and a consideration of the various ways out can be presented through the traditional media—drawing, painting, prints, sculpture, cartoons, murals, posters, etc.

Serious students of art know that most of the great creative artists were stirred to create by their faith in convictions held in common with their fellowmen. The sterility of much of contemporary art teaching, with its emphasis on antiquated techniques or on the circumscribed individualism of the early advocates of "progressivism," is largely due to the lack of such convictions. Pupils can be encouraged to select subject matter for their creative work from their own experience as it relates to the basic social issues which they as well as their parents face. Through this integration of art with social studies, they will not only produce better art but will have a more adequate preparation for living in the contemporary world.

# Social Studies Coöperate with Community Social Agencies

Mary E. Herrick

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mary E. Herrick is a teacher of history in Beverly, Massachusetts. Her experience with projects in which the school makes vital contacts with the community has brought her deserved recognition.*

P. R. H.

THREE YEARS AGO there was given, for the first time, in the Beverly, Massachusetts, High School, a course in what was called "Social Agencies." This was offered to twelfth-grade pupils who did not plan to continue their formal education beyond the high school. In spite of the fact that these pupils were so soon to take their places as citizens it was found that they knew almost nothing of the social agencies of their community. The course is still decidedly in the experimental stage but some progress has been made, we believe. Its purpose, as I have intimated, was to bring about a better understanding of the social work of the community and by natural connections the social work of the region and the nation; to arouse in the pupils a desire to share in that work; to acquaint them with the opportunity for such service; to help them to make a critical analysis of the respective value of such agencies; and to discover and obtain help for specific cases. Moreover, it aimed to develop the ability of these pupils to ask intelligent questions, to find supplementary material about a given topic, and to solve problems. The last, but not the least, of the purposes was to bring about a better understanding, on the part of other community social agencies, of the service which the school renders.

The course was planned to cover roughly the public and private agencies which are preventative, educational, and remedial in their work. Some attempt has been made to classify them under these heads though it is

apparent that it is difficult to make very definite divisions. At present they are presented as follows:

Beverly Health Center	Educational and preventative
Beverly School for the Deaf	Educational and remedial
Perkins Institute for the Blind	Educational and remedial
Classes for crippled children	Educational
Public-health dispensary	Educational and remedial
Essex County Health Association	Educational and preventative
Beverly Hospital	Remedial
The school	Educational and preventative
The church	Educational and preventative
Y.M. and Y.W.C.A.	Educational and preventative
Mental handicaps	Educational, preventative, and remedial
Public welfare	Remedial
American Red Cross	Remedial
Massachusetts Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children	Remedial

Leaders in the work of these social agencies were very glad to coöperate with us by coming to speak to the classes and by planning for us to see their work at first hand. The following will give an idea of how splendidly they responded. We have yet to meet a refusal.

Beverly Health Center	President and workers visit
School for the Deaf	Principal, demonstration class, and visit
Perkins Institute for the Blind	Principal, demonstration class and movies. Visit by delegates
Classes for crippled children	Special teacher in Beverly



Public-health dispensary	Nurse in charge
Essex County Health Association	Executive secretary. Visit to health camp and movies
Beverly Hospital	School nurse
The school	Headmaster of our school
The church	Clergyman
Y.M. and Y.W.C.A.	Local secretary and visit
Mental handicaps	Head social worker at nearby State hospital. Visit by delegates
Public welfare	Agents of various departments
American Red Cross	Local secretary
Massachusetts Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children	District agent and movies

The general plan of procedure was to give first a general introduction to the course. This included the definition of a social agency and of a social obligation. We tried to point out the relationship of the two and to illustrate with many examples of each. One of the definitions worked out and brought in by a pupil will give some idea of what we tried to cover. "A social agency is a social group (any group of people with a common purpose) working together, or through a representative, to better the social conditions and solve the social problems of its members." Special emphasis was placed upon the personal responsibility of high-school pupils in these matters. Having aroused interest in the subject as a whole we next outlined together a plan which might be followed in the study of each agency and what we thought would be a fair basis for marking as follows:

1. Questions asked of the speaker
2. Part taken in the discussion
3. A weekly quiz which could include:
  - a) Questions on material covered in class
  - b) Questions on supplementary reading
  - c) Ability to solve a like case
4. Written or oral report on any agency

To make this all clear we prepared mimeo-

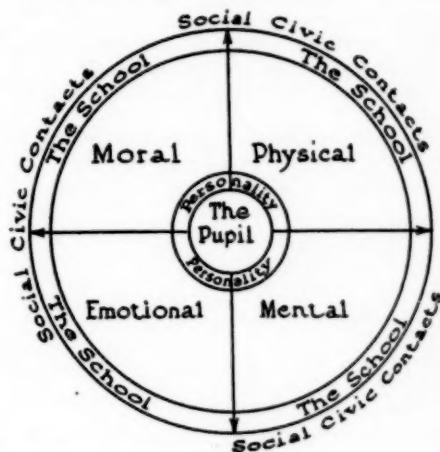
graphed assignment sheets for each agency such as the following:

### COURSE IN SOCIAL AGENCIES

#### Assignment III

#### The School

Study this diagram,<sup>1</sup> read some of the references, and then answer the questions.



#### READING REFERENCES

- Your School and You*, Bliss  
*Readings in American Democracy*, Williamson  
*The American People and Nation*, Tryon and Lingley  
*History of the American People*, Muzzey  
*Social Civics*, Monro and Ozanne  
*American Government*, Magruder  
*Major Problems of Democracy*, Eldridge and Clark  
*Everyday Civics*, Finch  
*American Education*, American Chronicles Series, Vol. 24  
*Lessons in Citizenship*, Turkington, Mugan, Pritchard  
*Course in Citizenship*, E. L. Cabot, editor  
*American Democracy*, Hayes  
*Problems of American Democracy*, Burch and Patterson  
*Responsible Citizenship*, Mavity and Mavity  
*Elements of Economics*, Burch and Nearing  
*The Practice of Citizenship*, Greenan  
*Readings in American Citizenship*, Greenan  
*The Community and the Citizen*, Dunn  
*Elementary Economics*, Carver and Carmichael

<sup>1</sup> By Headmaster F. H. Pierce of Beverly, Massachusetts, High School.



*Problems of American Democracy*, Hughes  
*State Government in the United States*, Holcombe  
*Education in the United States*, Cubberly  
*You and Your Government*, Maxey  
*Planning Your Future*, Myers, Little, Robinson

Answer these questions:

1. What is the purpose of the school?
2. How does the school try to fulfill this purpose?
3. What is the place of the teacher in this social agency?
4. What characteristics should a teacher have?
5. Why is a teacher a "good teacher"?
6. What is the place of the pupil in this social agency?
7. What characteristics should a pupil have?
8. Why is a pupil a "good pupil"?

Suggested topics for reports

Beverly schools  
 Continuation schools  
 Changes in education  
 Old-time schools  
 Vocational rehabilitation  
 Agricultural schools  
 The personal factor in education  
 What high-school training is worth  
 College-graduate criminals  
 Education for Indians  
 Home lessons  
 Education of Negroes  
 Value of fire drills  
 Dental clinics in schools  
 Training schools for nurses  
 School as a great industry  
 New education in Italy  
 Vocational schools  
 Understanding the child  
 Correspondence schools  
 The struggle for free schools  
 Higher education for women  
 Normal schools  
 Naval education  
 Why you go to school  
 Compulsory education

On the first day that we studied a new agency a case was presented to the class for discussion. Suggestions were made for its solution and it was usually decided that we lacked the necessary information and experience to come to any wise decision. That, of course, opened the way for a speaker for the next day. The speaker gave his advice in the solution of the case, told of his work, answered questions, and led the discussion.

At the next session, we talked over the contributions of the speaker and tried to see ways in which we could help. Then came reports on what is done by similar agencies elsewhere and comparisons or biographical studies of men and women who have done great service to mankind through this agency, etc. The wind-up was a quiz designed to help them to organize the information obtained and to express their reactions to the material covered. Probably a sample procedure for one agency will tend to show more clearly the plan followed.

#### BEVERLY HEALTH CENTER

- A. Case**—Told by teacher, requires the service of
  1. Nurse
  2. Child-guidance clinic
  3. Mothers' conference
 Discussion and possible solutions worked out by the class
- B. Speaker**—President of the Health Center
  1. Solves case previously discussed
  2. Answers questions
  3. Describes services of the Health Center
  4. Shows how the Health Center cooperates with other agencies
- C. Class discussions**—Led by various workers from the Health Center
  1. District nurse: (a) why high-school pupils should be interested in health; (b) the cost of ill health; (c) the major causes of ill health; (d) how to have good health
  2. Health-education worker: (a) sister clubs; (b) handicraft clubs; (c) food clubs; (d) clothing clubs; (e) canning clubs; (f) mothers' conferences
  3. Executive secretary: (a) clinics and a day at the Center; (b) child guidance; (c) toxin-antitoxin and baby clinics
- D. Visit to Health Center**
  1. Conferences with workers
  2. Observation of a clinic and some clubs
- E. Responsibility**  
 How supported and how we may help in other ways
- F. Elsewhere**  
 Reports on similar agencies in other communities and comparisons
- G. Value**
  1. What it does for Beverly
  2. Suggestions for further services: (a) pre-natal clinic; (b) clearing house for cases
- H. Quiz**  
 Another case to solve which includes many of

the services of the Health Center, but requires also special treatment for a deaf child, which leads to the next agency to be studied; i.e., the Beverly School for the Deaf.

On the whole the course has been successful though it is still in the experimental stage. Then, too, the results of such a course are intangible. It is planned to send out a questionnaire, about two years hence, to those who have taken the course with the hope of discovering whether or not it has been of worth. The pupils have, themselves, made certain suggestions and comments which would tend to show that they have developed a more social aspect of mind, that they feel far more keenly their personal responsibility for the "other fellow," and that they intend, now, to help to improve and support our community social agencies. They have asked that more time be given to the course. (So far we have had only the last quarter of the year for it. In 1934-1935 a half year will be given to it.) The pupils have brought in cases which have been referred to the proper agencies, they have manifested better emotional control and a more helpful attitude generally, and when the Chadwick Clinic (tuberculosis) was held last year not one of them failed to take advantage of it.

In answer to the question on the final quiz "Was this course a waste of time?" the following replies were received:

"We will know what we are contributing to later on."

"As citizens, we should know of the work of these agencies."

"We have learned much that we did not know before."

"We get more this way than we would from reading about them."

"The course makes you realize your own responsibility."

"Gives us the chance and desire to use the library."

"We have learned some important health rules and signs of disease."

"We have come to realize how serious tuberculosis is and how to avoid it."

"It has been more enjoyable than using a textbook."

"We have learned which is the proper agency to go to for certain things."

"We have told about these things at home and so others have learned about them too."

"We have had many wrong notions corrected such as the work of the State Hospital (the insane)."

"By studying about what other cities have done we have learned how our city could do better."

"A course like this should be required for graduation."

"It is helpful to come into contact with the real people on the job."

There are rather serious administrative problems to be met, such as arranging schedules so that the classes can be brought together in one period to hear a speaker who can come only at a certain time of day. Undoubtedly, a better order or classification of the agencies could be worked out and the course could be much enlarged in its scope.

We have faith, however, that the time spent has not been wasted and that it is very probable that the result will be vastly more far-reaching than is now apparent.

# Preliminary Report on an Experimental Course in Economics

Lester Dix

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Lester Dix, in addition to serving in an administrative capacity at Lincoln School, has developed a course in economics in the Lincoln High School. The following article sketches his conclusions to date.*

P. R. H.

**D**URING THE YEARS 1931-1933, the high-school teachers of the Lincoln School met each week for a detailed study of current American culture. These meetings were held in connection with experimental integrations of senior-high-school work begun in the fall of 1932. A considerable amount of attention was given to the economic problems of American society, for such problems were recognized by the staff to be of key importance. Similarly, in the resulting integrated courses given in the senior high school, economic problems assumed a major importance. During the progress of the eleventh-grade course a group of students became interested in the problem of currency inflation. They brought this problem to the writer who spent some periods in an effort to clarify it. As a result of this special project a considerable interest arose which crystallized into a request on the part of some students for a course in economics during their senior year. This request came appropriately to the writer who had been interested in the idea of working out a new approach to economics for high-school students. Accordingly, a course was offered and taken by a small group during the past year. With the part-time help of two assistants, the instructor is working over the year's experience and the materials developed in the course, and hopes to publish, before the end of 1934, a tentative and experimental course in economics for high-school seniors.

The Lincoln School has a definite responsibility for the experimental develop-

ment of the curriculum, in an attempt to make teaching content and procedure appropriate to the needs of modern life. This responsibility the staff takes seriously, attempting at the same time to avoid taking themselves too seriously. For this latter reason, it has been a common procedure in the school to develop materials in a tentative way and to make these materials available to all teachers. Teachers are then asked to coöperate in the improvement and further development of such materials. Teachers everywhere will recall the great success with which Professor Rugg used this plan in the development of his social-studies series. It is hoped that by a similar method many teachers can help to guide the building of a modern teaching of economics appropriate for senior high schools. With this purpose in mind, the present intention is to issue a tentative course of study based upon the teaching experience and research of the first year in a form which will make convenient the continuous revision, addition, and subtraction of materials, and the use by teachers as a teaching notebook, developing day by day. It is hoped that this material can be put out at cost and that many teachers of economics and social studies will be interested to coöperate.

The teaching staff in the Lincoln School is convinced that major economic problems have arisen in American life through the failure of people in general, and of most leaders, properly to understand economic forces which, in recent times, have changed in the character of their effects. The attempt of a course in economics in the Lincoln School must be to develop a realistic understanding of the actualities of economic life in America, the historic backgrounds of

the current economic life, and to develop an understanding of long-time economic relationships which would enable young people to clarify and interpret for themselves the economic factors in the immediate future of the United States and the world. No rehashing of a skeletonized classical economic theory will bring about these required understandings, for the reason that classical economic theory has been developed in eras having a fundamentally different economic basis from that we are now entering upon.

The new era represents a complete reversal of the basic economic facts of our culture. All theory has been built upon the unchanging rock of scarcity, as man struggled to make his world yield him a better living. The control of power other than that of animal muscle, capricious wind, and crude waterfall utilization has gone on until, at this moment, man faces the possibility of virtually unlimited power supply. Moreover, the elaboration of delicate and precise electrically controlled mechanisms is changing the fundamental character of industrial operations. The central change thus brought about is a rapidly mounting productive capacity supported by a rapidly falling need of man-hours of labor. There is no escaping the logic that this eventually means a possible standard of living representing a basic plenty for the total population.

It follows at once that economic theory will have to be reconsidered in the light of this reversal in the facts of existence. Economic relationships will not disappear but they will have to be reworked and restated. Interpretive treatment of economic theory must undergo some reversals as complete as the actual contrast between scarcity and plenty. Classic economic thought is relatively futile in this situation, as is evidenced by the confusion with which economists struggled with the transition period. To the teacher in the experimental school it seems entirely hopeless to try to build a new economic course by amending the old. For this reason, the group considering this project

had no interest in trying to make over old economics courses to fit new facts and to make them appropriate to students younger than college freshmen. They felt that such an attempt would get nowhere and be without value. The question then arose of how to attack the problem.

A review with the students of pressing economic problems of today soon raised most of the fundamental questions of economic life. These were attacked on their merits as if there were no existing economic theory. Economics then became (1) the total problem of human wants; (2) the capacity of nature and abilities of man to supply those wants; (3) an appraisal of his success up to the present; (4) an inquiry into the major causes of failure or limited success; and, finally, (5) speculations as to how he might go about achieving a satisfying success. Thus is presented a logical theme of inquiry which is made clear in the outline to be cited. It is a simple theme and a logical progression which young people readily understand and capably handle.

With this thematic scheme laid down, the next problem becomes, "How inclusive shall it be?" In the early view of the research group the limitation of one unit of five hours per week in the senior year was somewhat drastic. They are now inclined to feel that, on the whole, the limitation operates advantageously, the aim being not a comprehensive and detailed scholarship in the field of economics, past and present, but rather a clear understanding, based upon an adequate discussion of a relatively few basic concepts, having which the young adult might be considered as able to face his economic world with reasonable intelligence. It seemed imperative that the most basic realities be worked out—such as rapid change in the conditions of economic life, the fundamental nature of those changes, the key problems presented for social and individual decision, and a reasonable unity of the relationships between these problems. It was assumed also that good teaching would nat-



urally arise from a full use of the dramatic nature of the changes and the compelling interest generated by the sharp issues and contrasts now being discussed and fought out by people in all conditions of life.

Broad ideas concerning appropriateness of materials to age levels developed as the year passed. It is enough to say at present that the group agreed that, in the elementary grades, experience with the economic environment might well be very concrete, very direct, and as vitally emotionalized as possible, while its organization might well be kept in very simple form. The elementary years are excellent years for an enrichment of the child's natural tendency to explore his environment, economic and otherwise. To a certain extent, integration will take place as he makes his contacts, his explorings, and his experiments, but the elementary school can at many points fill out this experience of the economic environment.

In the junior high school a more considered descriptive examination of the economic environment is possible. Grouping of activities into related categories, generalization of the concrete activities of men into economic activities of society, and the feeling of the interdependence of these activities, can become considerably more mature.

In the senior year of the high school, it seemed not only quite possible but compellingly desirable that students begin to inquire into this experience in a temper of critical but hopeful appraisal. It was realized that many more than half of our young people still are not graduated from high schools and that only a minor fraction of these graduates go on to higher education. Certainly it seems unforgivable to turn these young people out into the adult world without some opportunity to gain a consistent understanding of factors in that world which go far towards making or breaking their lives, and, which, if not generally understood, may wreck our common life.

In this statement it will be possible only

to show the nature of the outlook and something of the ideas to be developed by the course. The outline and the concepts comprise an overview of the course for the teacher. They are not intended to be put in the hands of the students. For each section of the outline there are to be a generous number of questions designed to introduce and guide discussion and to lead to the development of the concepts and related knowledges. The completed course will include these questions; factual, statistical and graphic information for teacher and student; suggestions of methods and activities; and a working bibliography. Because of limitations of space the present report must leave these specific teaching elements to the published course.

## OUTLINE OF THE EXPERIMENTAL COURSE IN ECONOMICS

### THE NEED FOR A NEW SCIENCE OF ECONOMICS

#### *General Concepts*

1. For the first time in history it is possible to produce plenty.
2. Technological improvement and the control of power can produce enough material goods for all.
3. The problem of *producing* enough has become the problem of *consuming* enough.
4. The problem of providing enough *people* to *work* becomes the problem of providing enough *work* for *people*.
5. The problem of obtaining enough *time* for *recreation* becomes the problem of providing enough *recreation* for *free time*.
6. The problem of *supporting* enough *people* in *service occupations* becomes the problem of *finding* enough *service occupations* for *people* who can be and must be supported.
7. All our economic arrangements and ideas are based on the condition of scarcity.
8. All our economic ideas and machinery must be turned inside out to fit a condition of plenty.
9. Instead of *laissez-faire* methods we must learn group, or coöperative, ideas.
10. It will take time to reverse our ideas and methods.
11. Political government may have to keep economic life going in the transition period.
12. As the new economic philosophy becomes dominant, government control can again be



come less drastic, for every one will understand how to work in the new scheme.

### I. WHAT DO WE ALL WANT?

#### *Subsistence vs. Living*

- |                  |                      |
|------------------|----------------------|
| A. Goods         | Food                 |
|                  | Shelter              |
| B. Services      | Clothing             |
|                  | Health               |
| C. Satisfactions | Education            |
|                  | Occupation           |
|                  | Recreation           |
|                  | Security             |
|                  | Family life          |
|                  | Social satisfactions |

#### *Concepts*

1. Every one wants security, which means the ability to live safely and healthfully throughout his life.
2. Every one wants a reasonable minimum standard of living—food, shelter, clothing, etc.
3. Every one needs, and most people want, unlimited opportunities to improve his education.
4. Every one wishes to feel at home in his family, among his friends, and in his community.
5. Every one wishes opportunities for recreation, travel, entertainment.
6. Every one wishes possessions that have beauty as well as usefulness.
7. Such services as insurance, health, education, and recreation are as necessary for all as they are for a few.
8. Recreation, education, and aesthetic enjoyments are not limited in demand, as material goods may be, and must take an increasing part in the lives of all people.

### II. IS IT POSSIBLE TO PRODUCE ALL WE WANT?

#### *Man's Labor vs. Nature's Power*

- |                               |                            |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
| A. Natural wealth             | Land                       |
|                               | Forests                    |
| B. Sources of energy          | Minerals                   |
|                               | Fuels                      |
| C. Technical lore             | Water power                |
|                               | Schools and Libraries      |
|                               | of science and engineering |
| D. Industrial plant           | Skilled men                |
|                               | Factories                  |
|                               | Railroads                  |
|                               | Highways                   |
| E. Environmental improvements | Bridges                    |
|                               | Harbors, etc.              |

#### *Concepts*

1. We have the resources and abilities sufficient to supply our wants and needs if we use them wisely.
2. These resources include a favorable climate; rich supplies of raw materials, fuel, and water power; a high development of technical skill; and elaborately developed industrial machinery.
3. Our resources must be used and controlled for the benefit of the total population—present and future.
4. Money is not in itself wealth. It is merely a means to the use of wealth to supply wants.
5. Our ability to supply all our wants to a high degree has but recently become possible through the control of unlimited power.
6. One of our most important resources consists of trained men and the stored knowledge of the past.

### III. DO WE NOW GET WHAT WE WANT AND ARE ABLE TO PRODUCE?

#### *Poverty vs. Plenty*

- |                  |   |
|------------------|---|
| A. Poverty       | —Inequality of income, deprivation, disease, etc.                           |
| B. Insecurity    | —Unemployment, fear, defeat, loss of morale                                 |
| C. Ignorance     | —Educational and cultural inequalities, low standards of taste              |
| D. Regimentation | —Mass discipline for production, "herd" ideas and reactions                 |
| E. Class Warfare | —Rich vs. poor; capital (or management) vs. labor; urban vs. agrarian; etc. |
| F. Ugliness      | —Lack of design, ungainly cities, rural and urban homes, billboards, etc.   |
| G. Cynicism      | —"Hard-boiled" attitudes between groups, defeatism, social aimlessness      |
| H. Crime         | —Racketeering, delinquency in youth, "Only saps work."                      |

#### *Concepts*

1. At present enormous numbers of people are living in unnecessary poverty while others have wealth to waste.
2. The majority of people at all ages fail to enjoy a high standard of health.
3. A large percentage of people live and work in a condition of permanent insecurity and all of the people become periodically insecure.
4. Living standards are inexcusably low for almost the entire population.

5. Only a small fraction of the population ever had economic security.
6. Only a small fraction of the population receive enough education to understand or to demand what could now be furnished for them.
7. The major part of the population lacks political and personal freedom because of economic insecurity.
8. There is lack of security due to continuous conflict between economic groups.
9. In almost all areas of life there is unnecessary ugliness.
10. Large numbers of the population try to maintain their security by antisocial activities.

#### IV. WHY DO WE FAIL TO GET WHAT WE WANT?

##### *Money vs. Wealth*

- A. Uneconomic lack of balance
  1. Among incomes
  2. Among occupations
- B. Uneconomic lack of balance between
  1. Production and consumption
  2. Production and purchasing power
  3. Saving and spending
  4. Producers' goods and consumers' goods
  5. Production and money supply
  6. Wages and profits
  7. Wages and plant extension, etc.
- C. Obsolete economic ideas, based on scarcity
- D. Lack of economic controls for social good
- E. Use of money for profit rather than for distribution

##### *Concepts*

1. Purchasing power is so unevenly distributed that the majority of the population cannot buy what we are able to produce.
2. Because most of the people do not obtain a proper share of purchasing power, production is held to a minor fraction of the possibilities of our existing equipment.
3. In power production there is no relationship between the labor of people and the amount produced.
4. We continue to distribute purchasing power in relation to the amount of individual labor.
5. There is no direct relationship between the amount produced and the amount of money provided for its purchase.
6. We have failed to balance producing power and purchasing power.
7. Instead of providing sufficient money to purchase the possible production, we have created debts as a claim for a large portion of each year's production.
8. Most debts consist of purchasing power with-

held from the market by people who have a legal claim to more than they can spend.

9. We have saved too much of our purchasing power by putting it into plants which could not be used unless a larger share of purchasing power was spent for production.
10. Debts require continuous interest payments which further restrict purchasing power because, for the most part, interest is paid to those who cannot spend their entire incomes for consumption.
11. Individual industrial units cause waste of resources by competing among themselves without controls for balancing production and markets.
12. Production is managed primarily in the interests of the producers who constitute a small minority of the population, and not to supply the needs of consumers who constitute the whole social group.
13. Technical improvements are prevented from yielding larger returns for consumers because the existing equipment of producers would become obsolete.
14. While power production dispenses with men in industry, we have failed to develop non-industrial occupations of the service type.
15. All of our economic ideas are based upon the factor of scarcity, which disappears with power production.
16. Because of our traditional ideas we have refused to allow any agency to plan for the whole of economic life.
17. Power production makes it impossible to avoid planning.

#### V. WHAT MUST WE DO TO SUPPLY OUR WANTS?

##### *Competition vs. Coöperation*

- A. Coöperative Economic Organization
- B. Organized Planning
  1. Land and resources
  2. Industry and occupations
  3. National welfare
  4. International economic relationships
- C. Organized Reëducation
  1. Public administrator
  2. Technician
  3. Industrial manager
  4. Educator
  5. Citizen

##### *Concepts*

1. Economic life must be managed in the interests of the whole population.
2. The whole population must understand and work together.
3. In order to secure the necessary balance there must be planning:

- a) As between production and consumption
  - b) Between production and purchasing power
  - c) Between spending and saving
  - d) Among occupations
  - e) Among industries
  - f) Among nations
4. The planning must be enforced in the long run by general public opinion. It may be temporarily enforced by government authority.
  5. The planning must be done by an agency which can gather information from all economic activities.
  6. The planning agency will have to represent all economic groups.
  7. Planning will involve the services of technical experts, public administrators, industrial managers, educators, and citizens.
  8. An American planning agency must be set up in terms of controlling American ideals.
  9. Planning must seek to avoid waste in resources.
  10. Planning must seek to use productive abilities of every sort from every person.
  11. Planning must seek to increase consumption for every one and organize production to this end.
  12. Planning must seek to increase service occupations as the need for industrial labor diminishes.
  13. Planning must seek to preserve educational values in industry.
  14. Planning must indicate changes in political government required to fulfill its purposes.

## The "Unit" in the Social Studies

Howard E. Wilson

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Howard Wilson is well known to the social-studies teachers of this country through his work in the national organization of social-studies teachers. Mr. Wilson is a member of the faculty of Harvard University.* P. R. H.

VERY FEW WORDS appear more frequently in the educational literature of the last decade than does the term "unit." The little word has become a sort of educational football—for some a password into the mysterious realms where curricula are made, and for others an educational excrescence either to be scorned or to be attacked with true quixotic ardor. Like many another shibboleth, in education and in other fields, this one has suffered from excessive popularity. It has become a catchall in educational theorizing, and, in educational practice, no more a clue to progress than a blanket to cover a multitude of sins. Textbooks, courses of study, and even curriculum makers use the word more liberally than meaningfully. Sometimes "unit" is a synonym for "chapter," sometimes for "section"; sometimes it is identified with fusion, and sometimes it refers to a type of correlation. One textbook

has been so bold as to label one of its parts "Miscellaneous Unit," and the contradiction between adjective and noun has seemed to bother many readers of the book no more than it did the publishers and author.

One is forced to fear, by the inconsistencies of its use, that the word "unit" is well on its way towards death at the hands of its erstwhile friends. Yet in its original sense the term stood for an educational idea of significance, and that idea should survive, whatever the fate of the label. Like any other concept, this one should be frequently redefined. Only by trying repeatedly to state with increased clarity the meaning of the term can its life be preserved. Without such analysis and reanalysis the term becomes an empty husk—a symbol of an attempt to translate into a mechanical formula an organic, living idea which dies when mechanized.

In the direct sense of the term, as it is used in reference to the curriculum, a unit is a body of subject matter, every item of which is related to a central core of thought. The central core of thought is a unifying

agency and the distinctive mark of a unit; it is an interpretation of the subject matter clustered about it. The unit idea, or central core of thought, is a generalization, comprehensible through the data grouped about it, and the data themselves acquire full meaning only when they are in direct focus on the generalization. For illustration, items of information concerning the number of commercial treaties negotiated by the United States each year since 1789, concerning our annual totals of exports and imports, concerning the Monroe Doctrine, Spanish-American War, and World War acquire their educational significance only when seen in focus on a generalization deducible from them, such as "The United States has become a world power." In an American history course where information about our foreign relations, both political and economic, is sandwiched in among data of purely domestic concern, there is not a unit on "the United States as a world power," though there may be, of course, units of a different nature. The encyclopedia does not have ideational unity, except within its separate articles. The textbook which treats the quarrel over slavery and the slave trade in the Constitutional Convention on page 100, the Missouri Compromise on page 140, abolition on page 175, and which has a chapter on "Life and Literature in the 1850's" between the chapters on "Expansion and Slavery" and "The Civil War" does not have a unit of material on "the slavery controversy." The data are all in the book, but they are not focused. A basic effort in education of the last generation was to get, not away from but *beyond*, straight, undigested factual material. The unit, the embodiment of an idea which arises from but transcends raw data, is an outgrowth of the effort to bring meanings and ideas into a curriculum which is too frequently, for pupils, an uncharted, pathless wilderness rather than a series of insights into the meaning of human experiences.

There is nothing mysterious or magical

about these units. Units are simply interpretations of subject matter, paths into the wilderness of concrete facts, which, in turn, become focal points for the organization of selected aspects of the subject matter for teaching purposes. There are large units and small units, significant units and insignificant units, just as there are large and small and significant and insignificant ideas in any field of human thought. Turner's thesis on the influence of the frontier on American development may be utilized as the core idea around which a body of subject matter is organized. Such an idea certainly has significance, but it may be too large, that is, too abstract, for a junior-high-school pupil to grasp. For the junior high school, the suitable unit idea may be only that "there is no longer a frontier within the United States," and for grade IV the suitable idea may be that "the Middle West was settled later than the Atlantic seaboard." At one educational level there may be a unit on one of Cheyney's "laws" of history, or even on the thesis that there is no law in history; at another level there may be a unit, less abstract and, therefore, less controversial, on the theme that "centers of human population tend towards temperate zones"; while at a still lower level there may be a simpler unit which takes as its core the idea that "there is a past and it influences our ways of living."

Units, then, vary greatly as to their scope. There are units within units; units overlap one another and are sublimated or synthesized into vaster units. There does not exist a pre-ordered hierarchy of units in the social studies any more than there exists a pre-ordered hierarchy of ideas. Units are not discovered; there are no universally "natural" units in spite of the claims of some of the curriculum experts. Units are created; they are man-made in that they are focused on ideas which are men's own attempts to read meaning into their experience. It is the scope, or size, or degree of abstractness of a unit which determines its



learnability. The necessity for grade placement of materials arises from the fact that younger pupils cannot grasp larger abstractions. The social-studies curriculum, properly conceived, is a sequence of ideas, each idea embodied in a unit of subject matter. Each unit should fit the maturity of the pupils for whom it is intended, and should be as large as they can grasp but not so large that they become lost in it. They must envision the unit ideas throughout the unit in order to understand the meaning of all its subject matter. In the curriculum today, pupils often "fail to see the forest for the trees." The unit arrangement of materials is designed to improve their vision.

When ideas are accepted as the focal points in curriculum construction the question of indoctrination at once arises. Whose ideas are to be taught? That we shall teach ideas rather than unfocused and quickly forgotten data is assumed to be desirable in the light of current philosophy and our knowledge of the psychology of learning. But teaching of ideas must be carefully hedged about if we are not to open the social studies to every type of propagandist. There are only two safeguards—first, reliance upon scholarship, and, second, inculcation of the basic tenet of scientific thought that no generalization is final. The generalizations, or ideas, that we teach in schools are to be those of the scholars, and all are to be colored by the basic "law" of all human experience, "nothing is permanent; change is a part of life."

The relation of generalizations to contemporary life is another matter deserving attention. The generalizations which the school teaches must be applicable to current and coming realities, as significantly applicable as is possible. The generalizations which we hope to build into human personalities must give those personalities some insight into and explanation of the current scene. But the unit ideas most worth teach-

ing are not those which are connected exclusively with current events. The most significant ideas transcend both time and place. Current events do not belong in the center of a unit, at its ideational core, but on the unit's periphery where they serve as an introduction to a unit and as a field for the application of the unit idea. To say that the social-studies curriculum must be realistic, must be tied to life's actualities, is not to say that it must be a curriculum organized around the passing show.

A social-studies unit, then, from the point of view of educational objectives is an idea, a concept, an understanding, an insight into the nature of human experiences. From the point of view of the actual curriculum, a unit is a body of subject matter directly focused on an idea or generalization. A bewildering multitude of units can be drawn from that "seamless web of experience" which is the field of the social studies and from any one of the disciplines which have been built up in that field. Those units which are most useful for education are not only those which are accurate, that is, based upon the soundest and most modest scholarship available, but those which also are teachable in the sense of being well gauged to the pupils' level, and which are significant in their wide applicability to the realities of developing social life. The unitary organization of subject matter is no panacea, no mystical solution of curriculum problems, but only an emphasis on what many of us believe to be a crying necessity of the day, an attempt to communicate to pupils what scholars themselves think about the data they handle. To the extent that unit organization helps pupils interpret the subject materials put before them, units are good. But it is to the interpretation of materials and to the inculcation of ideas rather than to a futile little four-letter word that education really owes allegiance.

# Social Studies Contribute to American Reconstruction

## New York City Civic Education

(High-School Pupils Coöperate in Socially Useful Work)

Mabel Skinner

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mabel Skinner is chairman of the civics department of the Washington Irving High School of New York City. Many interesting innovations in civics instructions have come out of this school during the period in which Miss Skinner has been a member of its faculty. In addition, Miss Skinner has served on a number of city and State committees for the reorganization of civics instruction.*

P. R. H.

TEACHERS of social studies seem to be agreed that they sincerely want their subjects to contribute to American reconstruction. They are more or less divided, however, in their interpretation of the term. To some of us it suggests a return to the status of our predepression days; to others, blazing new trails and exploring new territory. "American Reconstruction" covers a multitude of meanings. The problem of teachers of civics in New York City like that of teachers of social studies throughout the United States is thus complicated by the fact that we are not unanimous in regard to our objectives.

Not only is it true that there is more or less diversity of opinion as to just what it is we wish to do, but there is a tremendous urge to do very much, possibly even to overdo. A "Visitor from Atlantis,"<sup>1</sup> surveying the social studies of the United States, recently reported a "top-heavy superstructure of objectives," arranged in such categories as "immediate and ultimate," "intrinsic and derived," "general and specific," and "major

and minor," the largest number in any one course for a particular grade being 135, while one unit in another course is introduced by a list of 85, and one course of study for junior high schools contains 47 mimeographed pages of objectives.

And yet, perhaps we teachers are not so far apart. At the Washington Irving High School of New York City we say that "The paramount aim of the civics department is to help our girls to feel more deeply, think more clearly, act more wisely in social and civic affairs today, and to live happier, richer, and more useful lives in their respective communities tomorrow." We can all subscribe to that, can we not? To be sure the statement leaves much to be desired from the standpoint of scientific analysis and accuracy; and yet it is specific enough, we think, to keep before our eyes a rather clear picture of what it is that we are trying to do.

The methods we use in carrying out our platform vary with the teacher and with the abilities and needs of the different groups we teach, but we believe that these methods, if successful, will be based upon certain laws. Of these the law of learning by doing is the most important in our eyes. Also we believe that unless student activities are purposeful they will not be educational and unless they are socially useful they are futile and effete. Children can go through the motions of doing things, deriving no benefit therefrom, and doing no good to others. It is when they undertake a real job for the sake of accomplishing something worth

<sup>1</sup> W. G. Kimmel, "Observations by a Visitor from Atlantis on Instruction in the Social Studies," *The Social Studies* (April 1934), xxv, 4, pp. 181-186.

while and in order to help somebody else that we have the "doing" which results in personal growth and in community progress.

It follows, therefore, we believe, that the way for a youth to train himself for the responsibilities and opportunities of adult citizenship is to accept those of junior citizenship now. This is but another manifestation of that law of growth which has brought about the evolution of man from prehistoric Protozoa. It has widespread implications in civics, as will readily be seen.

Keeping our platform and our creed in mind we are now ready to discuss our New York civic education in terms of socially useful activities, whether they be activities preceding the recitation and preparatory to it, or those which take place in the classroom, or those which follow the recitation, interpreting the lesson and applying it in service. Our Board of Superintendents considers all of these so important that in 1926 it published a Syllabus of Civic Activities for use in the high schools of the City of New York.

The activities which precede the recitation usually start in the classroom. There the motivation is established, difficulties are pointed out, and ways and means discussed. Also, if some class project is to be undertaken, the committees must be chosen, their duties defined, and dates set for their reports. If letters are to be written asking for information, care must be exercised to see that no duplicates are sent. Children need to be taught to be thoughtful and considerate of others. It is a rule in some of our city schools that no pupil may write to any one asking for information that he can get for himself if he will take the trouble to go to the library to look it up, and that no written request may go out until it has been "cleared" through the chairman's office.

Interviews are encouraged with mothers, with workers, with the milkman or the grocer or the neighborhood patrolman, but not with busy officials. Pupils are reminded that "Little minds are interested in the ex-

traordinary; great minds in the commonplace," and that the tea kettle or the falling apple becomes significant to a Watts or a Newton or to an observant and reflective girl or boy. Pupils visit baby health stations or nearby food markets, looking for evidence of rules and regulations discussed in class, or trying to discover what our civic problems are. "Community research" is the dignified name we give to these family and neighborhood interviews and tours of exploration, and this is encouraged and fostered in as many ways as our ingenuity can devise.

The activities which follow the recitation, supplementing it and applying it in service, increase in value as they are the more genuinely needed because of some social situation. Sometimes the condition of affairs which calls for action is in the school itself. The writer remembers visiting quite unexpectedly a class in our civics department and finding a thirteen-year-old girl gravely leading her group in the discussion of one of our school problems. There was thoughtlessness and negligence on the part of the girls and "something ought to be done about it." Committees were appointed—the observing committee, with the duty of watching for specific practices which needed to be corrected and reporting them to the class (the offenses, not the names of the offenders); the advertising committee, whose duties were to be those of securing publicity for any measures the group might deem necessary; the committee on arrangements, which was to interview one of the deans and try to secure the advice and assistance of the governing council; the speaking committee, the members of which were to prepare brief talks to be delivered in other civics classes. The teacher spoke but twice during the entire period, both times when the girls turned to her asking her counsel.

In due process of time the class project culminated in a list of cleverly worded suggestions, arranged in an anagram and with schoolgirl drawings for illustrations. A mimeographed copy of this sheet was pre-

sented to every first-term civics pupil in the school. The members of the different committees came to school out of their session to do the typing, mimeographing, and speaking to other classes; and, under the most efficient leadership of the student chairman, carried through their project to a successful conclusion. Surely this was a lesson in "carrying out the laws."

At a time when colds and influenza were all too prevalent and their after-effects the subject of general conversation, one civics department interested the entire school in a health week. The domestic-science department weighed all who would step onto their scales, tagging them as overweight or underweight or with the much to be desired tag of normalcy. The art department contributed charts, posters, and models. The department of accounting discussed health as a business asset and emphasized the fact that poor health was a serious liability. The language departments reiterated messages of health by means of Latin and Italian mottoes, Spanish translations, and setting-up exercises with the orders given in French. The mathematics department welcomed data that the civics teachers could supply and worked up a number of graphs based on vital statistics. The teachers of the health-education department used this week for their special physical examinations for cardiac ailments. There were also talks in the assemblies given by representatives of the New York Tuberculosis Association and other health organizations.

The civics classes themselves spent the week working on health projects grouped around four central thoughts: "Health costs effort, but health is worth the effort it

costs"; "The health of one of us affects the health of all of us; and the health of all of us affects the health of one of us"; "Many things are done for us to help to keep us well"; "Every single one of us must do his best to help." There were interviews and visits, reports, and discussions, and every pupil was urged to think health and cultivate health habits to increase his personal happiness and usefulness and to help improve the public health.

As to the activities which take place in the classroom, these are an expression of, or a preparation for, those which take place outside. In all of these the wise teacher guides and directs with a lighter and lighter hand on the reins, until the class finds itself cantering along the bridle path with only a gentle suggestion now and then from the rider. If only we could persuade more classes that cantering is great fun!

Above all there is teacher activity carefully planned to stimulate the individual to go forth with an abiding zest for conserving the best in our common life and with a burning zeal for bettering it.

Some one has said: "The way to educate a man is to set him to work; the way to get him to work is to interest him; the way to interest him is to vitalize his task by relating it to some form of reality." New York City civic education is based on the assumption that any course of study or any plan or any pedagogical method which takes into account social and civic needs and which is adapted to the abilities of the children cannot help but contribute to American reconstruction.



# Reflections After Teaching Contemporary Problems

Ruth Wood Gavian

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mrs. Gavian has been teacher of social sciences in Brewster, Massachusetts. Mrs. Gavian is co-author of a new high-school text which discusses our changing social order.*

P. R. H.

TO THE COURSE in contemporary problems the student does not bring the fresh and open mind with which he undertakes algebra, Latin, and other subjects more detached from his daily life. On the contrary, he already possesses a good deal of information, or misinformation, and prejudices not a few concerning most phases of the material to be taken up. If the course is to be more than a reiteration of the prevailing ideas of the community—if it is to look beneath the surface for the causes and the true extent of the social maladjustments of our day, and arrive at conclusions that are not wholly conventional—the student must become aware of, and appraise, the opinions with which his mind is stocked.

Taking advantage of the keen interest of adolescents in the workings of their own minds, I have found it profitable to devote several days at the outset of the course to making plain the sources of our opinions and prejudices, and to implanting the idea that straight thinking about social questions requires an extraordinary and unceasing effort to ascertain the facts.

The newspaper lesson is an interesting springboard into the course. Editorial policy making itself felt in the selection and presentation of news, headlines that do not fairly represent the copy, covert propaganda, appeals to reader prejudice, and the frank furtherance of minority interest are easily illustrated by clippings from a variety of papers. That the same bias appears in practically all other agencies that shape public

opinion can be readily brought out in a discussion based on the students' own observations.

In this connection I believe it worth while to devote an hour or more to the psychology of advertising. After hearing a brief analysis of the part played by suggestion, the arousing of fear, and the "snob appeal," a committee will volunteer enthusiastically to prepare an exhibit of advertising for the bulletin board. Readings from *Your Money's Worth* by Chase and Schlink, and from the nonconfidential bulletins of Consumers' Research of Washington, New Jersey, I have found valuable in driving home the lesson of our gullibility and how it is daily and hourly exploited. The methods used in advertising throw light on the formation of public opinion, the understanding of which is so essential in the course on contemporary problems. I believe also that there should be a carry-over into daily life, by means of which the student may become more resistant to appeals to his emotions.

Once the pupils realize the unreliability of mere opinion, and the extent to which all of us are subject to prejudice, they are ready to take up the course and make of it something besides a prolonged discussion of matters on which the last word can never be said.

Since the facts in this field are often in the form of statistics, which are meaningless to the average person save as they are presented in graphic form, some attention must be given early in the term to the interpretation of diagrams, graphs, and pictographs. I am satisfied that the time spent by my pupils in preparing simple curves, bar graphs, and circle diagrams for their notebooks from which statistics I had chosen for their

social significance, was time well spent.

In such a course as this, where discussion necessarily has a prominent rôle, and where the attempt must not be made to force any student to take over the *opinions* either of the teacher or the author of the textbook, it is important to secure the faithful preparation of daily assignments. Otherwise, the talkative are tempted to come to class with no knowledge of the facts, confident of being able to think of something to say on the spur of the moment. To avoid this, the short objective quiz given at the beginning of the period several times a week is a useful device. By asking only questions that can be answered in a word or two, and insisting that the papers be promptly forwarded, the time taken out of the period is almost negligible. Moreover, the papers can be graded at a glance, and if the correct answers are announced when the papers are collected, they do not require to be marked and returned. This device has the further merit of eliminating the need of a roll-call, and of making unnecessary any use of the deadening recitation technique, thus leaving most of the period free for directed discussion, special reports, open forums, field trips, and other educational activities.

As in other courses in the social studies, supplementary readings are indispensable, so that the students may have contact with varying points of view, and that they may develop an interest in the better sort of national and critical periodicals. In the small community the teacher is hard pressed to find enough supplementary material that is reliable, interesting, up-to-date, and within the grasp of high-school students. Books of readings would, I think, be extremely useful, but unfortunately very few have ever been published for high-school students. I have found it advisable to collect pamphlets, magazine articles, diagrams, and cartoons, in addition to keeping a list of all the worthwhile nontechnical books available in the school and community libraries. In this subject, cluttered as it is with muddled think-

ing and propaganda, I do not think it possible to leave the choice of readings to the pupil; he should be held rather closely to the bibliography prepared for him. Brief summaries of supplementary readings should, I think, be required for the pupil's notebook. As for oral reports on outside reading, it is my experience that only superior students can prepare and present them adequately. I have made it a rule to be familiar with any material on which pupils are bringing in special reports, in case I should find it necessary to supply the class with an interpretation.

As I see it, one of the chief functions of this course is to create a progressive attitude—the hope and belief that society will find ways to establish greater social justice and to ensure for all a more abundant life. Another function should be a keener sympathy for, and understanding of, those in social difficulty—the dependent, the ignorant and shiftless, the defectives, delinquents, vagrants, and mentally disordered. Before these desirable social attitudes can be inculcated, it is necessary to eradicate certain widely held fallacies. One of these is the platitude “You can’t change human nature,” which has, I suppose, been advanced in opposition to every proposal for social betterment that was ever made. Another is the notion that people who are social misfits are necessarily, or even probably, poor human material, and, conversely, that all who achieve success are persons of superior native endowment. This, of course, is nothing but the medieval idea of status in fixed social classes, plausibly reinforced by a hazy conception of the findings of intelligence tests. I think the best way to counteract these mischievous half-truths is to devote a few periods to some of the elementary principles of psychology, particularly to the conditioned reflex, the importance of the preschool years in determining the personality, the limited place of instinct in human behavior, what constitutes mental hygiene, and the mechanisms of wishful thinking, identification, re-

pression, etc., which when exaggerated give rise to much delinquent and unbalanced conduct. Social problems can neither be understood nor attacked without reference at every step to the nature, the limitations, and the possibilities of human beings.

The course has not succeeded unless it has helped the student to understand the realities of our political and economic life and to relate himself to them worthily. He must be armed to meet the cynicism of his elders in regard to political duties, and for this he needs to know the facts concerning party machines, bosses, and lobbies,<sup>1</sup> and the prac-

tical ways in which the honest citizen can make his influence count on the days between elections. He should have learned not only what it means to live without taking advantage in any wise of others, but how in his own corner of the world he may contribute to the social welfare. These are some of the essentials if the course in contemporary problems is to help complete the socialization which is the aim of modern education.

<sup>1</sup> See Frank Kent, *The Great Game of Politics* (Garden City: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1930), for a bright and purposeful account of our little understood party system.

## Inor Pamphlets . . .

### No. I, Chats in An Employment Office,

J. Edward Goss, 40 pp.; 25 cents, aimed at curing of the "want-to-quit school" complex among high school boys. The author has been personnel director of a large industrial plant for many years, and in this booklet he successfully "chats" with the youngster who thinks leaving school at an early age will cure all his troubles.

### No. II, Basic Facts of English Grammar,

George A. Kuyper, 40 pp.; 25 cents, a pocket handbook that effectively lists the common mistakes in grammar and outlines means of correcting such faults of speech. Students will find the booklet concise and practical for personal speech improvement.

**INOR PUBLISHING COMPANY, Inc.**

RKO Building, Radio City

New York

# A Prayer: From the Culture-Epoch Theory Please Spare the Junior High School

Helen Halter

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author does not object to the culture-epoch theory as the basis of senior-high-school work but she feels that the junior-high-school pupil is not as interested in the culture epochs as in the current scene.*

F. E. L.

THE Development of Culture, The March of Civilization, The Progress of Man, and similar courses are undoubtedly in high favor among curriculum constructionists. Granting that such courses may be interesting and valuable, I am fervently praying that the junior high school may be spared them.

Spared, to what purpose? This—that the junior high school may engage in projects in associational living arising from school situations which are vital and interesting to pupils. Often such projects will lead naturally into an investigation of cultural and historical backgrounds, but at least teachers and pupils will be free from having to decide to overlook a real problem in associational living because it does not seem to fit with the stage of culture which they have under investigation at the time.

May I illustrate?

The following project in associational living grew out of a real problem in the lives of the pupils—in fact, was discovered and started by them without any faculty guidance. It developed until it involved the Traffic Club, student council, the newspaper, the social-science classes, homerooms, and the assembly.

At the training school at the New York State College for Teachers there is a rule imposed by the college, whose lunchroom the high-school students use, that no candy is to be taken out of the lunchroom where it is sold. The reason given is that it would be unsanitary to have candy eaten in the high-school building. This reason has always

seemed inadequate to the high-school students who want to eat their candy on the way back to our building rather than when they have arrived there. However, being a rule, it was one of the things which junior-high-school Traffic Club officers were to enforce.

It is difficult to remember just how the problem began. It took form so rapidly. It may have been the letter published in the school paper which started everything or it may have been the report at the student council meeting. At any rate, in both places the charge was made that officers of the Traffic Club were being bribed to allow pupils to leave the lunchroom with candy, the bribes being a share of the candy taken out.

The student council summoned the Traffic Club captain to explain at the council meeting. He said that he would be glad to do so. He made public his statement to the council in a letter to the newspaper in which the Traffic Club held that any bribery in the school was the fault of the students themselves who offered the bribes. It was up to the student body to cooperate with the Traffic Club members rather than tempt them not to do their duty. If the Traffic Club was guilty, so were the students. Only cooperation could solve the problem.

The school was on fire with the question. Who was to blame—the Traffic Club or the student body? Ought volunteer membership in the Traffic Club be abolished and the students in it be elected? (You can imagine how the Traffic Club members reacted to this question—they would show the school that they were just as good as any elected students.) Has the student body failed to cooperate? What could be done?

The social-science teachers who had been looking for an opportunity to help students



to realize the power of public opinion pounced on the problem. Questions proposed by the students, mind you, not assigned—were discussed with interest by every one. Suggestions of things to be done were listed. How could the classes make their ideas felt? (A practical situation—how could they make public opinion effective?) The class decided to write to the newspaper. Obviously all letters could not be published. The class would select its best to send in. Were those letters written carefully, clearly, fairly? You ought to have seen them being poured over, analyzed, and rewritten *without one word of assignment from the teacher*. This was their problem and the teacher was helping, not “teaching.”

In the meantime the council had placed the Traffic Club “on probation.” Although clubs are chartered by the council in the school, no one had ever heard of putting a club on probation. In fact, it had not occurred to the social-science supervisor and student council adviser that such a thing could be done. It was the pupils’ decision.

It was also the pupils’ decision early in the controversy that no particular Traffic Club officer or student was to be indicted. “After all,” some one said, “punishing a few people wouldn’t help anyway. The important thing is to settle the problem.”

None of the faculty ever heard a name of a Traffic Club officer or student used. The students accepted the fact that it was a school problem involving all of them.

The council decided that all of the homerooms ought to discuss the question of, as they phrased it, “Traffic Club Efficiency.” So a committee of students from the council and

the Traffic Club worked with a group of college seniors (who are the teachers of the training school) to set up a program of questions for discussion by the homerooms.

The Traffic Club decided to give a play in assembly, a mock trial, trying some student for taking candy from the lunchroom. They chose as the defendant a student who they said every one knew would never bribe an officer. In the trial they tried to summarize all the evidence why such an offense was unworthy of the officer bribed, the student doing the bribing, and the school where it happened. The trial was correct according to legal procedure. (It was worked out with the help of the club sponsor and social-science teachers.) And impressive! Ordinarily if there is time out between action on the stage the student body hums with comment. While the jury was out for four minutes in this particular play, not a word was spoken in assembly. The faculty was at a loss to explain this attitude on the part of the students except that the question had become so serious to them that hilarity had no connection with it.

The happy ending to the project was that the Traffic Club was taken off probation, the bribing and smuggling in the lunch room reported a thing of the past, the student body seemed to have convinced itself of its duty of cooperation with its officers. In fact, everything seemed peaceful except that the social-science classes had become incensed upon realizing forcibly for the first time that bribery in places outside of the school was worse than it had been in school and “what can we do about that?” Culture-epoch social science—well, if you prefer it, but as for me—

# Traits of Junior-High-School Pupils

Samuel P. Unzicker

**EDITOR'S NOTE:** *All teachers should be interested in knowing what character traits are considered desirable by teachers, parents, and pupils. Mr. Unzicker, vice-president of the Roosevelt Junior High School of Fond du Lac, Wisconsin, decided to ask them. He gives their answers in this article.*

F. E. L.

RECENT YEARS have witnessed a marked increase in emphasis on character education and citizenship training in the public schools. Our industrial civilization has produced a weakening of family ties and a loss of influence of the church in the molding of character. Not only has the influence of the home and church lost considerable of its former potency, but our civilization is of such a complex nature compared with earlier civilizations that the problem of living together is not the simple matter it once was. Instead of owing allegiance to a single institution, the individual finds himself belonging to many and all too often finds that loyalties conflict and weaken. Modern means of travel and communication make for a fluid people in which the ideals of a community tend to be weakened or broken down entirely by the impact of different ideals. It seems paradoxical that at the moment in our national life when there is most need for the development of wholesome and adequate attitudes towards our institutions, our government, and our fellows, the two institutions—the home and the church—most largely responsible for the building of these social attitudes, ideals, and habits, should find themselves losing influence.

There are evidences that the public schools have taken cognizance of this changing situation. In recent years there has been a marked shift towards attempts to build up desirable attitudes and to train for citizenship. There are a number of manifestations of this trend. Lack of space permits only a mention of some of these evidences.

The shifting emphasis from mere structure of government in civics to the study of community life and community problems in modern curricula is one of the more obvious evidences of this shift. The trend towards the organization of materials formerly taught in water-tight compartments as history, geography, civics, economics, and the like, into integrated units dealing with social living, under the broad designation of "Social Studies" is another. The numerous attempts at the formation of courses of study in character education and the introduction of extracurricular programs, with their emphasis on the development of leadership and self-direction through actual participation in social and civic living, are further evidences of the recognition by schools of their responsibility for training in wholesome, happy, and effective social living.

## THE PROBLEM

The present study<sup>1</sup> is concerned with the problem of attempting to find what the qualities are which junior-high-school citizens should hold before themselves as ideals of conduct. There is no single source to which the student may go to seek the answer to this question. Some have analyzed books, newspapers, magazines, and moral codes in attempts to find what conduct should be idealized. Others have gone to representative citizens or to some special group of citizens. Some have used questionnaires, others personal interviews. Whatever the method, it appears from the very nature of the case that that group itself determines what conduct is acceptable. Therefore the group, or some segment of it, must be consulted if the student is to secure judgments as to what qualities of citizenship individuals should hold before themselves as ideals.

<sup>1</sup> Based on a more extended investigation submitted as Field Study Number 2 for the Ph.D. degree, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado, 1933.

In this study the writer went to (a) junior-high-school pupils, (b) their parents, and (c) their teachers to find what qualities of citizenship they considered to be the most important. The rating of traits by pupils was further classified by half grades and by dull and bright groups.

#### THE PROCEDURE

In order to secure a list of desirable traits, 1,100 pupils in Roosevelt Junior High School at Fond du Lac, Wisconsin, in 1930, were asked to write what they considered to be the qualities of a good citizen. Fifty teachers in the same building submitted a list of qualities. From these sources, supplemented by lists of traits compiled by others, a total of 115 traits was secured. The pupils in this school, their parents, and teachers were asked to go through the alphabetized list of qualities and to check the ten which they considered to be the most important.

Fifty usable lists were secured from teachers, 1,024 from pupils, and 118 from parents. The 1,024 pupil lists were divided among half grades as follows: 200, 7B; 136, 7A; 205, 8B; 125, 8A; 230, 9B; and 128, 9A. Of this number 196 were in bright, or "x," sections and 181 in dull, or "z," sections. The rank order of the combined group of 1,024 pupils, 50 teachers, and 118 parents was obtained by averaging the per cent of each group checking the trait and then arranging the traits in the order of per cents.

Because of the varying degrees of overlapping in the meaning of the 115 traits they were dovetailed into 27 groups. The rank order of these 27 groups was obtained in the same manner as for the raw traits.

#### RAW TRAITS COMPARED AND INTERPRETED

The list of raw traits, arranged in the rank order of combining ranking by pupils, teachers, and parents, is shown in Table I together with the average per cent of the three groups which ranked them. Only three traits—honesty, thrift, and health—were checked by more than 50 per cent. However, the first fourteen were checked by more than 25 per

TABLE I  
RAW TRAITS IN RANK ORDER OF AVERAGE OF PERCENTAGES OF RATING BY PUPILS, PARENTS, AND TEACHERS

Rank	Trait	Weighted score
1	Honesty	66.56
2	Thrift	61.85
3	Health	59.95
4	Ambition	49.67
5	Obedience	48.93
6	Courtesy	47.57
7	Coöperation	47.03
8	Loyalty	44.60
9	Sportsmanship	43.65
10	Self-control	43.03
11	Accuracy	39.89
12	Cleanliness	35.54
13	Clean-mindedness	29.63
14	Manners	29.32
15	Promptness	24.96
16	Initiative	24.85
17	Neatness	24.65
18	Dependableness	23.19
19	Unselfishness	22.76
20	Attention	22.63
21	Courage	22.63
22	Judgment	22.17
23	Kindness	21.11
24	Reliability	20.77
25	Honor	20.52
26	Patriotism	20.48
27	Politeness	19.63
28	Willingness	19.59
29	Humor	19.05
30	Self-confidence	19.01
31	Self-respect	18.58
32	Cheerfulness	18.56
33	Responsibility	18.11
34	Respectfulness	17.86
35	Fairness	17.18
36	Patience	17.17
37	Leadership	16.91
38	Efficiency	16.32
39	Tact	16.29
40	Appreciation	16.08
41	Independence	15.86
42	Truthfulness	15.75
43	Carefulness	15.61
44	Industry	15.29
45	Reverence	14.47
46	Trustworthiness	14.14
47	Wisdom	13.62
48	Concentration	13.13
49	Adaptability	13.07
50	Alertness	12.72
51	Happiness	12.61

Rank	Trait	Weighted score	Rank	Trait	Weighted score
52	Faith	12.51	107	Dynamic	1.97
53	Perseverance	12.50	108	Self-sacrifice	1.73
54	Open-mindedness	11.46	109	Liberality	1.72
55	Self-reliance	11.44	110	Prudence	1.62
56	Sociability	11.04	111	Steadfastness	1.08
57	Thoughtfulness	10.79	112	Information	.92
58	Determination	10.65	113	Reserve	.86
59	Sincerity	10.47	114	Resoluteness	.67
60	Enthusiasm	10.45	115	Sensitiveness	.51
61	Sympathy	10.28			
62	Regularity	9.73			
63	Considerateness	9.84			
64	Usefulness	9.31			
65	Tolerance	8.91			
66	Faithfulness	8.65			
67	Modesty	8.56			
68	Purity	8.53			
69	Idealism	8.26			
70	Thankfulness	8.21			
71	Forgiveness	8.09			
72	Etiquette	8.07			
73	Agreeableness	7.29			
74	Frankness	7.89			
75	Vision	7.88			
76	Creative thinking	7.88			
77	Generosity	7.79			
78	Attractiveness	7.77			
79	Resourcefulness	7.66			
80	Gratefulness	6.85			
81	Orderliness	6.07			
82	Helpfulness	5.60			
83	Eagerness	5.30			
84	Pleasantness	5.24			
85	Democracy	5.33			
86	Optimism	4.98			
87	Chivalry	4.79			
88	Calmness	4.65			
89½	Eagerness	4.49			
89½	Hospitality	4.49			
91	Diligence	4.42			
92	Thoroughness	4.39			
93	Integrity	4.27			
94	Altruism	4.14			
95	Gentlemen	4.05			
96	Persistence	3.99			
97	Fellowship	3.97			
98	Imagination	3.76			
99	Charm	3.59			
101	Charitableness	3.21			
101	Originality	3.15			
102	Dignity	2.88			
103	Discrimination	2.80			
104	Contentment	2.29			
105	Vigor	2.26			
106	Ingenuity	1.97			

cent. Although there is a tendency for the ranking groups to agree in their rankings of the traits, as indicated by the coefficients of correlations, there are some contrasts worthy of mention. The more noteworthy may be considered.

The coefficient of correlation of the rank of the traits between parents and teachers is .67. This indicates a fairly high agreement between the judgments of the two groups. However, there are some interesting disagreements. Teachers rate much higher than parents such traits as coöperation, initiative, judgment, leadership, appreciation, industry, adaptability, reverence, idealism, and resourcefulness. These traits are not mere veneers; they are not mere conduct; they go much deeper than that. They require intelligence, thought, self-direction. Teachers in Roosevelt Junior High School have great respect for the personality and the individuality of each child. In contrast to this the parents stress such traits as obedience, manners, neatness, attention, willingness, kindness, politeness, fairness, patience, faith, modesty, and purity. Docility and conformity are the predominant notes sounded by this group of traits. It appears that there is here a cleavage between two points of view clearly defined. The parents emphasize conservatism, conformity, docility; the teachers, freedom, individuality, and personality.

Pupils tend to agree with their parents more nearly than with their teachers. The coefficients of correlation between pupils and parents is .87, between pupils and teachers .49. The former is considered to be a high degree of correlation. Parents rank initia-



tive and self-control 24 and 17, respectively; pupils rank them 70 and 72. With lesser differences parents rank regularity, sympathy, modesty, and frankness higher than pupils; and the latter, sportsmanship, considerateness, and thankfulness higher than the former. The same contrast which was observed between parents and teachers may be said to occur, generally, between pupils and teachers. However, it appears significant that ninth-grade children show a decided tendency to agree more nearly with teachers than do seventh-grade children.

There is a high degree of agreement between pupils of the different half grades. The lowest coefficient of correlation is .78, between 7A and 9A; and the highest .94 between 7B and 7A and between 9A and 8A. The consistently high correlation between rankings by different half grades serves as a check, too, on the reliability of the rankings. Although there are few differences between the rankings by half grades, some fairly clear contrasts appear between seventh- and ninth-grade pupils. The former consider obedience, loyalty, manners, faith, thoughtfulness, thankfulness, frankness, unselfishness, tolerance, faithfulness, helpfulness, and eagerness to be more important than they are considered to be by ninth-grade pupils. Excepting tolerance, teachers are much more in agreement with ninth-grade pupils than with seventh. Ninth-grade pupils place more emphasis on thrift, health, coöperation, initiative, judgment, reliability, humor, efficiency, tact, independence, determination, and etiquette than do the seventh-grade pupils. Excepting independence and etiquette, ninth-grade pupils agree more nearly with teachers than do seventh-grade pupils.

In view of the fact that pupils as a whole agree more nearly with parents than with teachers, and that ninth-grade pupils agree more nearly with teachers than do seventh, it is reasonable to conclude that the ideals which parents give children are gradually superseded by the ideals of the teachers, as pupils remain under the teachers' influence.

Although bright and dull children agree quite closely in a number of important traits, such as honesty, thrift, obedience, courtesy, self-control, accuracy, neatness, unselfishness, judgment, and others, and although this is reflected in a coefficient of correlation of .80, there are a number of interesting contrasts which may be mentioned. Bright children rank ambition, cleanliness, initiative, perseverance, and traits of a similar nature much higher than do dull pupils. It seems fair to assume that pupils whose ideals are persistence, efficiency, independence, and dependableness should, even with equal native ability, find themselves achieving so successfully that they would be placed in the best sections. Or stated negatively, it appears fair to assume that failure to achieve sufficiently to rise above the poorest section may be due in no small measure to the absence of these ideals.

In contrast to this the dull pupils rate much more important such traits as loyalty, manners, kindness, truthfulness, carefulness, faithfulness, purity, thankfulness, forgiveness, gentleness, and traits of a similar nature. Although the value of these traits as ideals would scarcely be denied, they are certainly not the ideals which make for achievement.

Table II lists the raw traits in which parents, teachers, and pupils, including bright and dull, agree, within certain limits of total rank order. Honesty and thrift were the only two traits ranked 10 or less by all these groups. Note that 22 traits were ranked within the first 50 by all these groups.

#### COMPARISON WITH OTHER STUDIES

Hunt<sup>3</sup> compiled a list of 64 traits which he found by an analysis of moral codes, books, courses of study, and similar sources. These 64 qualities which he tabulated occurred in four or more of the fifteen sources

<sup>3</sup> R. L. Hunt, *A Study in Character Education*, Ph.D. Field Study Number 3, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado, 1933.

to which he went. Fifty-four of the qualities which Hunt compiled were common to the present study. The coefficient of correlation between these two studies, on the basis of the 54 common traits, was found to be .805 which is quite high.

Mahan<sup>3</sup> asked 350 high-school pupils and 280 representative citizens what they con-

tically no agreement between Mahan's results and the writer's.

#### RAW TRAITS TELESCOPED AND RANKED

The raw traits in this study were telescoped into a list of 27 as shown in Table III. In this table the traits are arranged in the rank order of combined pupils, teachers,

TABLE II  
RAW TRAITS IN WHICH PARENTS, TEACHERS, AND PUPILS, INCLUDING "X" AND "Z," AGREE; EXPRESSED WITHIN LIMITS OF TOTAL RANK ORDER

Within limits included	Number	Trait
1-10	1	Honesty
	2	Thrift
1-15	3	Health
	4	Obedience
	5	Courtesy
	6	Loyalty
	7	Sportsmanship
	8	Self-control
	9	Accuracy
1-20	10	Ambition
	11	Coöperation
	12	Cleanliness
1-25	13	Clean-mindedness
1-35	14	Promptness
1-40	15	Judgment
	16	Honor
1-45	17	Dependableness
	18	Responsibility
1-50	19	Unselfishness
	20	Courage
	21	Self-respect
	22	Respectfulness

sidered were the qualities which citizens should have. There were 46 traits common to his representative citizens and the writer's list. These correlated .248 with the parents of the present study, and .225 with the combined rankings in the present study. There were 27 traits common to the high-school students of Mahan's study and the writer's. These correlated .341 with the junior-high-school pupils in this study, and .229 with the combined rank. These coefficients, though positive, are very low and show prac-

TABLE III  
ONE HUNDRED FIFTEEN TRAITS TELESCOPED INTO TWENTY-SEVEN GROUPS, AND ARRANGED IN THE RANK ORDER OF COMBINED PARENTS, TEACHERS, AND PUPILS BY THE WRITER

- 1 *Dependableness* (faithfulness, integrity, honesty, reliability, responsibility, steadfastness, trustworthiness)
- 2 *Ambition* (attention, concentration, determination, diligence, persistence, resoluteness, thoroughness)
- 3 *Coöperation* (democracy, loyalty, obedience, followship)
- 4 *Courtesy* (adaptability, chivalry, etiquette, hospitality, manners, politeness, tact)
- 5 *Tolerance* (charity, considerateness, kindness, open-mindedness, patience, sympathy, thoughtfulness, unselfishness)
- 6 *Honor* (clean-mindedness, purity, self-respect)
- 7 *Attractiveness* (neatness, cleanliness, orderliness)
- 8 *Respectfulness* (faith, patriotism, reverence)
- 9 *Thrift*
- 10 *Fairness* (sportsmanship)
- 11 *Health*
- 12 *Accuracy* (carefulness)
- 13 *Friendliness* (agreeableness, cheerfulness, forgiveness, gentleness, pleasantness, sociability)
- 14 *Helpfulness* (altruism, generosity, liberality, self-sacrifice, usefulness, willingness)
- 15 *Self-control*
- 16 *Leadership* (initiative)
- 17 *Courage* (self-confidence)
- 18 *Discrimination* (judgment, prudence, wisdom)
- 19 *Independence* (ingenuity, originality, self-reliance, resourcefulness)
- 20 *Charm* (calmness, dignity, humor, modesty, reserve)
- 21 *Sincerity* (earnestness, frankness, truthfulness)
- 22 *Enthusiasm* (alertness, eagerness, dynamic, optimism, vigor)
- 23 *Promptness* (regularity)
- 24 *Appreciation* (gratefulness, thankfulness)
- 25 *Vision* (creative thinking, idealism, imagination)
- 26 *Happiness* (contentment)
- 27 *Information*

<sup>3</sup> T. J. Mahan, *An Analysis of the Characteristics of Citizenship*. Contributions to Education, Number 315 (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928.)

and parents. The same trends noted in raw traits are to be observed in the telescoped lists as well. It appears significant that when traits having similar meanings are brought together the coefficients of correlation between the various ranking groups are higher than for the raw traits between the corresponding ranking groups. Intercorrelations between parents, teachers, and pupils range from .50 to .89 with very nearly the same rank order as for raw traits. Intercorrelations between half grades range from .91 to .96, which is very high indeed. This confirms the reliability of the ratings noted in the preceding section.

#### SUMMARY

1. Parents and teachers are in agreement on the importance of many traits. However, parents place greater stress on qualities of docility and conformity such as obedience, manners, neatness, attention, willingness, kindness, politeness, patience, faith, modesty, and similar traits. Teachers, on the other hand, stress such qualities as coöperation, initiative, judgment, leadership, appreciation, industry, adaptability, reverence, idealism, and resourcefulness.

2. Pupils show a greater degree of agreement with parents than they do with teachers.

3. Pupils in consecutive half grades agree more nearly with each other than do pupils in grades further removed.

4. Pupils in the seventh grade agree more nearly with parents than do pupils in the ninth grade. Pupils in the ninth grade agree more nearly with teachers than do pupils in the seventh.

5. Bright and dull children show much agreement in the relative importance of traits. However, bright pupils place more emphasis on ambition, cleanliness, initiative, perseverance, and similar qualities than do dull pupils. Dull pupils rate higher such traits as loyalty, manners, kindness, truthfulness, carefulness, faith, purity, thankfulness, forgiveness, gentleness, and like qualities.

6. Honesty, thrift, health, obedience, courtesy, loyalty, sportsmanship, self-control, accuracy, and ambition were the ten ranking traits which were rated among the first fifteen by all groups which ranked them.

TABLE IV

TELESCOPED TRAITS IN WHICH PARENTS, TEACHERS, AND PUPILS, INCLUDING "x" AND "z," AGREE; WITHIN EXPRESSED LIMITS OF TOTAL RANK ORDER

Within limits included	Number	Trait
1-5	1	Dependableness
	2	Coöperation
	3	Courtesy
1-10	4	Ambition
	5	Tolerance
	6	Honor
1-15	7	Attractiveness
	8	Responsibility
	9	Thrift
	10	Fairness
1-20	11	Health
	12	Accuracy
	13	Friendliness
	14	Discrimination

7. When the 115 traits were telescoped into 27 groups the same tendencies were observed as in the raw traits. Coefficients of correlation were higher in the telescoped than in the raw traits and, with very few exceptions, in the same rank order.

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# Student Attitude on School Clubs

C. O. Wright

EDITOR'S NOTE: In Atchison, Kansas, Mr. Wright, the principal of the junior-senior high school, found that pupils do favor the club program. After all, I feel that this isn't very surprising. F. E. L.

**W**HAT DO STUDENTS, after six years of club experience, frankly say about school clubs? Do they consider clubs interesting and successful enough to be continued in these strenuous days, or do they favor the elimination of the club program?

We may well stop to ask students about their club experiences, for we asked them very little as we developed our club programs over the country. From the seats of learning for the last decade there flashed theories, philosophies, and suggested plans for extracurricular activities. Administrators at the front, always anxious to be "up and coming," eagerly carried the standard forward. As a result club programs were more or less forced onto student groups. With what results?

As retrenchment in school costs grows, there is an increasing challenge to extracurricular activities. Reactionary groups, as usual, have tended to sacrifice the most immediate progress, the new, and have taken refuge in the older practices. Should school club programs, a new part of the secondary school, be first cast aside?

With greater teaching loads, increased class sizes, and larger enrollments, the sponsoring of activities becomes quite a weight for the teacher. Sponsorship takes the time and effort of the faculty and the funds of the school district. It is well that the program be evaluated, and, from the student's point of view, as much as possible.

With this aim in mind, a hundred and thirty seniors of the class of 1933 were asked to fill out an unsigned questionnaire so that they might frankly express their opinions. These seniors were completing six-

year courses under a voluntary type of club program which offered club opportunities for two activity periods a week.<sup>1</sup> The two most significant questions were: "Are you in favor of eliminating school clubs?" "What are your reasons?"

In reply to the first question, one hundred and twenty-five answered, "No"; that is, they were in favor of having the clubs continued. The five who voted otherwise gave as reasons for their opinion the following:

"I think that we could get more from the periods if we used them for study." (They have that privilege now.)

"I believe that they are not very helpful."

"As a rule the club programs are a waste of time."

"The programs were not carried out as planned. If they would be I would be in favor of them."

"To me clubs lack interest and are dull."

The one hundred and twenty-five who were in favor of continuing the club program gave some surprising comments concerning educational values. These student expressions are of interest especially since the school offers no normal training and no effort was made to "sell" the clubs on the basis of educational aims when the program was submitted to the students some six years before. These comments are listed under headings that I have added so as to classify them under current educational objectives and practices:

## *Educational Guidance*

"Clubs are as helpful to a student as classes. They give more of an opportunity for students to make choices of subjects than classes do. The way they are going

<sup>1</sup> The questionnaire was composed by George Cleland, activity director of the Atchison, Kansas, Junior-Senior High School.



over should be an indication that they are desirable."

### *Vocational Guidance*

"Because clubs are for the most part educational. They help one to develop a hobby and to select an occupation or profession."

### *Use of Leisure Time*

"Clubs offer opportunities for participation in vocational groups. They develop hobbies and offer a chance for relaxation, pleasant occupation, and excellent companionship."

### *Breadth of Education*

"I think they are valuable in helping you to get what you cannot get in some of your classes."

### *Leadership*

"There should be more to school than just study. Clubs develop leadership and coöperation. Life is not only work, but has some play too."

### *Social Life*

"I think that students benefit by the associations that they have in clubs; school should not only take care of the scholastic side but the social side of a student's life also."

"Clubs form a part of the social activity of the school and are indispensable for the good they do in creating a better social life in the school."

### *School Attendance*

"Because school would be terribly monotonous if they were eliminated. Students would be sure to stay out of school more often and not be as interested in coming to school regularly."

### *School Control*

"We need some kind of student activity, something besides studies. Clubs keep us out of mischief so much."

### *School Marks*

"Clubs furnish a means of relaxation and are also an incentive to help school grades."

Attention might again be called to the vote of 125 to 5 on the matter of continuing the clubs. If we ask for student sanction for any subject we offer or anything we do about a high school, it is doubtful that as favorable an endorsement would be secured. Students favor clubs. Before we eliminate them as an economy measure, would it not be wise to look about to see if there may not be some dead timber in our curriculum that should go first?

# Supervised Correspondence Study— A State Function

Earl T. Platt

EDITOR'S NOTE: *For years I have been interested in supervised correspondence courses. Mr. Platt, of the University of Nebraska Extension Division, sets up the requirements for a State program in this field. I should like to see his recommendations followed in every State.*

F. E. L.

## STATE RESPONSIBILITY

IF CORRESPONDENCE COURSES are to become a vital factor in the programs of the high schools of America, State universities through their extension divisions must accept the responsibility for establishing and for maintaining State supervised correspondence study centers. These centers must be supplied with funds either through a grant from a foundation or through a direct State appropriation so that basic experimentation can be carried on to establish the needs of the schools of each State. It would be a waste of time, of effort, and of funds to establish a State center without having secured, or having set as the first task for that center to secure, a complete survey of the possibilities of service within the State. Having uncovered the services that a central correspondence study office could render to the high schools, both large and small, of a State, funds must be made available, and an adequate organization must be established for carrying on extensive experimentation to discover the best means for rendering each of these services.

Some understanding of the expense involved in the establishment and maintenance of a State center can be secured when it is recognized that every correspondence course which is prepared is an experiment, and that all courses must be revised, while many must be entirely rebuilt. The only way that completely satisfactory courses can be developed is through experimentation with

the courses in actual operation. Following the establishment of a satisfactory correspondence course, it must be kept under surveillance in order that any new instructional methods and any new content material may be introduced as soon as it has been shown that the new method is better adapted to teaching than the old, and as soon as the new content is proved of superior value to the old.

## DEVELOPMENT AND INTRODUCTION OF COURSES

The number of courses that should be developed for a State can never be established exactly. Very likely all basic subjects and other subjects that are offered in a representative number of the high schools of the State should be developed within a reasonably short time after the establishment of the State center. However, the number of vocational, avocational, and appreciational courses that might be developed is in the hundreds. Only through the establishment of a few courses of each kind can an estimate be made of the demand for courses of these types. Experience with similar courses at the University of Nebraska has shown that schools are exceedingly slow to take advantage of other than basic courses, but once a superintendent and his faculty become familiar with the unusual courses, registrations in these subjects from that school gradually mount.

In the smaller high schools, the field of vocational instruction has been only slightly developed; in the same schools, the field of appreciational subjects has been left totally undeveloped. Not only should the State center experiment in the development of these courses, but it should experiment in the in-

roduction of these courses. This means a very close coöperation between the State center and individual schools in order that reliable data may be gathered, and that proper and inexpensive equipment may be furnished by the local school.

#### EDUCATIONAL EQUALIZATION

Supervised correspondence study on a State-wide basis can be made a means of educational equalization: First, by having the State provide a sufficiently large appropriation to carry the administrative overhead of the State center, the development of all courses, the constant revision of courses already prepared, and the research for the entire field; second, by making it possible for students in small high schools to have available many, and ultimately all, of the courses that are offered in the large high schools, and by making available, to both the small and large high schools, courses that neither school has ever had.

#### EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Whenever supervised correspondence study becomes a State-wide function with adequate funds, educational specialists of outstanding ability can be secured to construct and to revise courses, while excellent teachers can be employed to correct and to make individual suggestions on papers. Through this personnel, outstanding leadership can be exerted in the fields of methods, of curriculum, and of research.

With the State center established at the university many well-qualified teachers and research workers would be available from the university staff. The teacher-training division of the university could coöperate with the correspondence center, and thereby unify the instructional methods and subject-matter content of the courses taught in the teacher-training institution with those built for correspondence instruction. Preparatory teachers could become familiar with the correspondence courses which they would later use in the field. Graduate students at the uni-

versity could select research problems definitely connected with correspondence study which they could work out under the expert supervision and guidance of research specialists in their particular fields.

#### CURRICULUM CONTENT

The content of the curriculum offerings in large high schools, as well as small, has been from one to several years behind the demands of the social and of the economic life of the day. Methods employed in teaching high-school subjects have often lagged even farther behind. Where a State correspondence center could be held responsible for the preparation and for the continuous revision of all the courses demanded by a modern conception of a high-school curriculum, it would appear feasible that the courses established by that agency could be used to keep the curricula of all secondary schools in the State dynamic, virile, and up-to-date in both content and method.

#### COORDINATION WITH RADIO INSTRUCTION

The coördination of supervised correspondence study with radio instruction might prove of immeasurable benefits in improving instruction and in enriching the curricula of the high schools of a State. Responsibility for experimentation and for service in such a project could very rightfully become a function of the State correspondence center.

Many university broadcasting stations are serving State educational functions. To prepare material at the State correspondence center which would coördinate with radio instruction in such courses as current events, music appreciation, and literature should be a relatively simple matter when sufficient funds and properly trained educators are available. When a State center is established at the university, coöperation with the university broadcasting station would become a matter of internal adjustment. In addition, the facilities of university libraries, as well as the services of specialists in many fields,

would be immediately at hand. Reference outlines, bibliographies, tests, test keys, and some form of check sheet could be supplied to each student through the State center. If the local schools should desire, assignments and tests could be corrected at the State center in the same fashion as regularly supervised correspondence assignments and tests are corrected.

Several purposes would be served through the coördination of radio instruction with the correspondence center.

1. A powerful agency of motivation (radio) would be introduced.
2. Local schools could be readily reached with the very latest news developments.
3. Exceedingly large classes and in many small high schools the entire school could be included in a radio correspondence course at a very small cost.
4. Small high schools could receive much instruction and encouragement in preparing for State, district, or local contests in music, dramatics, debate, and the like.
5. Instruction could be enriched and improved in many courses.
6. The voices of outstanding teachers and personages could be carried to the listener.
7. Local communities, as well as high schools, could benefit from the courses.

#### ISOLATED PUPILS

In many States education in State institutions, such as industrial schools and orthopedic hospitals, stops with the conclusion of grammar-school work. Where such is the case, supervised correspondence-study courses which are prepared and administered through a State center would be used to advance the educational opportunities of pupils in such State institutions.

Also, there are many high-school pupils

who, because of location, finances, or physical handicaps, are unable to attend regularly organized high schools. Courses from the State correspondence center could be handled under the supervision of rural teachers and parents, thus extending to this group the opportunity for additional education.

#### ADULT EDUCATION

In cities, adult education in night classes has been restricted because of small enrollment. Unless there has been sufficient demand in each subject to pay for an instructor, a night class has not been organized. In towns and rural communities, little or no adult education has been undertaken beyond that carried on through county-farm agencies. Through the organization and administration of numerous correspondence courses through a State center, adult education could be carried on by correspondence under supervision in large and small communities. In large communities, small classes of from one to a half dozen or more students could be brought together under one supervisor; in this way it would be possible to offer virtually an unlimited number of courses. In the small communities where no attempt has been made to carry on night classes, one or more classes could be organized, with the students registering for several courses.

The needs of all adults could be met through the correspondence courses even though only one supervisor were employed. Where the demands for adult education would be too small to warrant the employment of a supervisor, arrangements could be made for adults to work under the supervision of one of the regularly employed teachers of the local school.

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# Analysis of Pupil Marks

N. William Newsom

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Any time an editor's note in THE CLEARING HOUSE calls for an article in answer I believe it should be published. I still stand by my editor's note in the December 1933 issue. What is your opinion?*  
F. E. L.

THE DECEMBER 1933 issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE carried a report of an investigation entitled, "A Comparison of Marks Assigned by Men and Women Teachers." The editor's comment which preceded the discussion reads as follows: "Almost any honest teacher will admit that his marks are based on a good many elements that are not usually to be tested in a written examination. Possibly personal charm is one of these elements, and if it is—more power to teachers."

It is not the investigation but the editor's comment which prompts this article. It injects one of the many elements which too often influence pupil's marks and thus make them unreliable for the purpose for which they are presumably given. Marks or any system of marking are at best unreliable and too often have little value in appraising past progress of the pupil or predicting his future success. The more the personal element is allowed to influence the mark, the more unreliable it becomes for the purpose it should serve.

The purpose of this article is to present a method for analysis of pupil marks. The analysis, however, should be applied before the marks are assigned. This involves a consideration of three major factors: (1) purpose of marks, (2) elements to be appraised, and (3) methods of appraisal. No one of these is independent, but all must be considered together when determining the mark.

## PURPOSE OF MARKS

Marks are given for the purpose of educational guidance of pupils. When teachers

advise pupils and guide them scholastically in the secondary school, they are confronted with two conditions: (1) What progress has the pupil made in the several courses which he has taken in school? How well has he already succeeded? (2) Based upon his past success, how well is he likely to succeed in the remainder of his school program? If the marks in any school subject represent anything other than progress in the work which the marks are supposed to appraise, then their reliability is to that extent decreased. Parents, teachers, and pupils should be able to evaluate the pupil's progress from the mark he receives. They should serve as a means whereby the pupil's future could be planned, at least tentatively. When the "pass and failure" system is used, the parent and pupil have no way of evaluating the pupil's success. A few schools, mainly colleges, use this system in reporting marks to students, but record in the registrar's office some other system. Such practice is not warranted because marks are intended to help the pupil as well as the faculty appraise his success. Under such a system the pupil has no help generally.

## ELEMENTS TO BE APPRAISED

If it is agreed that the purpose of marks is for pupil guidance, then it is immediately apparent that only progress and success in the activities of the course should enter into the mark. This eliminates the personal element of all kinds. Charm, personality, and other phases of personal elements are very desirable and should be fostered, but they do not help in the evaluation of success in the courses in which the pupil receives marks. They, of themselves, do not solve problems in mathematics and the other sciences nor develop an understanding of social trends. Interest and effort often enhance the mark both directly and indirectly. They,

too, are essential and should be solicited by all means at the hands of the teacher, but they should receive credit indirectly and not directly. If they are really present, they evidence themselves in the progress made by the pupil. When they do thus evidence themselves, they lose their original identity and become another factor. It has long been agreed that the pupil's mark in a course should not be reduced for misconduct. Angelo Patri says: "No teacher has a right to lower a student's marks because of his conduct. It is bad enough to give him a low conduct mark. A student must receive the mark he earns." If the principle in the negative form is valid, then why should not the positive side be applied? This discussion of the personal element does not imply that personal factors should not be considered and evaluated, but progress in them should be taken care of in some way other than through the mark in a course, which represents success in it.

#### METHODS OF APPRAISAL

Adequate appraisal of pupil progress under any system of marking is difficult. It has been at all periods of development of the school the center of much discussion. It still is an issue and probably will never be completely solved. Too many factors enter, have to be weighted, and the mark determined. As I see the matter there are three methods which can be used. To these may be added certain combinations.

1. *Absolute Method.* The first method of appraisal which was generally used was the absolute. Under this system a pupil was required to "make" a score of 70, or some similar quantity, to pass. It was arbitrarily set up by the administration and likewise arbitrarily applied by the teacher. Often there was much hair-splitting between a point or even a fraction of a point. It later evolved into the A, B, C, etc., or I, II, III, etc., system, which provided greater leeway. It presumably represented standards. It was based

upon the subjective type of examination. Its unreliability was due to a large extent to the arbitrary and subjective factors.

2. *Relative Method.* With the development of the statistical method and its application to education, a new method of marking came into existence. The new-type test provided greater application of this method. Under this system the normal distribution or a modified form of it is used. Pupil marks become a relative matter. Each pupil's marks are determined by what he does in comparison with the other pupils of his class. This system provides roughly for a certain per cent of A's and another per cent of B's, etc. The standard is set by the pupils rather than arbitrarily by the teacher. The administration determines the approximate per cent of respective marks. Its weakness lies in the fact that it represents no real standard of progress. H. C. Morrison says: "Appraisal by rank-in-class is therefore badly calculated to identify and to measure the real educational product." Under this system all pupils of the class could do inferior work and still, all except the allotted per cent, would receive a passing mark or better. If definite norms had previously been established it could be applied more accurately than is generally done.

3. *Individual Method.* The only reliable method of appraising the progress which the pupil has made is that which determines his initial status and final success. The difference between the two represents his progress. This system may thus be called the individual method because no arbitrary standard is set up by the school nor is the pupil's mark determined by the rank method. It takes into consideration ability because it gives the starting point. This system necessarily involves a different procedure from the other two. It necessitates mainly a pre-test and a final test, both thoroughly covering the same subject matter. Parallel tests should be used. This system is shown by the following illustration:

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<i>Pre-test score</i>	<i>Final test score</i>	<i>Gross gain</i>	<i>Potential gain</i>	<i>Per cent gain</i>
20	80	60	80	75

Suppose a pre-test of 100 questions, representing 100 values, were given and the pupil made a score of 20. Then suppose at the end of the course a parallel test were administered and he made 80. His gross gain would be 60. But how much could he have gained? His potential gain was 80 (difference between what he made on the pre-test and the total possible score he could have made.) His gain in terms of what he could have gained is 75 per cent. The following illustrates the situation for a number of pupils:

	<i>Pre-test score</i>	<i>Final test score</i>	<i>Gross gain</i>	<i>Potential gain</i>	<i>Per cent gain</i>
<i>Pupil</i>					
John	20	80	60	80	75
Sam	40	80	40	60	66
Tom	50	90	40	50	80

This illustration shows that even though the two pupils, John and Sam, made the same score on the final test their gains are not the same because their initial scores were different.

#### 4. Combination of Above Methods. Cer-

tain combinations of the foregoing methods might be used. (1) The absolute and relative systems could be used together. The same deficiencies, however, would be present. Under this system an arbitrary standard could be set up for a passing mark and all pupils who fail to attain this would not be passed. The remainder of the class group would be marked on the relative basis for the other marks. (2) The relative and individual systems could be combined in the following way: By following the procedure suggested under the individual system the gain of each pupil could be determined. Then by applying the relative method the marks could be assigned. This system takes into account individual progress and then compares it with the other pupils in determination of the mark to be assigned.

#### SUMMARY

(1) Marks should be assigned for the purpose of pupil guidance. (2) Only those elements which help appraise progress in the course, in which the mark is given, should enter into the mark. (3) The method of marking which appraises each pupil's progress individually should be used.

# Student-Teaching in the Secondary School

John J. De Boer

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. De Boer is assistant editor of the English Journal. I like particularly his statement, "After all, the coöperative ideal for the classroom has only symbolic meaning so long as society outside is predominantly competitive. The progressive-education movement must be merged in the larger struggle for the liberation of the American worker, and the substitution of coöperation for the profit motive."*

F. E. L.

A FEW RARE spirits in the educational fraternity have in recent years come forward with the bold doctrine that the school must assume leadership in the building of a new social order. In so doing they have advocated a departure from the historic sequence which made the teacher an apologist for the prevailing social economy and the school an instrument for the prevention or retardation of social change. However idealistic these proposals may be, they fail to take adequate account of the facts of social evolution, which even in these days of the smashing of precedents continue to assert themselves. The educational program of Soviet Russia and of Fascist Italy and Germany, as well as the thinly veiled coercion exercised upon American teachers, are current illustrations of the operation of the inexorable law which holds the school the handmaiden of the group in power.

The fact that an exceptional leader has found it possible cautiously to advance the collectivist conception of society does not obscure the preponderant servility of the rank and file of educational workers. It is impossible to overlook the highly selective character of the teaching body, in which survival has been contingent mainly upon conformity to the established order. The new social order will have its birth, if at all, in the shift of power from the exploiters to the masses, and if teachers participate in the process they will do so as citizens and not as teachers.

This fact has an impressive significance to proponents of "progressive education." After all, the coöperative ideal for the classroom has only symbolic meaning so long as society outside is predominantly competitive. The progressive-education movement must be merged in the larger struggle for the liberation of the American worker, and the substitution of coöperation for the profit motive.

It does not follow, however, that we need to assume a fatalistic attitude towards the preparation of teachers in a capitalist society. The break-up of the old, worn-out social system may be accompanied, even preceded, by the conditioning of the educational process at its source—the teacher-training institution. It seems to be pretty generally agreed by the so-called frontier thinkers that we are today in a transitional stage. A period of ferment and of social experimentation is a fairly hopeful time for fundamental reorganization of the teacher-training program in terms of anticipated change in the structure of society at large.

The crucial point in the education of teachers is, of course, the student-teaching period. At the present time it represents the final triumph of the *status quo*, both as regards educational procedure and as regards social outlook. No amount of curricular reorganization, however thoroughgoing, will avail if the administration of student-teaching is not placed upon a strictly experimental basis and controlled by the most advanced educational thinking.

At the present time student-teaching in secondary schools is conducted mainly in "coöperating schools" which are members of public-school systems in urban centers. These schools share in the prevailing conservatism of public schools generally in matters of curriculum and method. Apprentices



working in the classrooms of these schools are given practice in those activities which are central to the conventional techniques commonly employed in the American secondary school.

Experimentation with informal procedures is commonly discouraged on the ground that it requires a very experienced teacher to manage a true activity program. The fallacy inherent in this point of view is that the skills required in the traditional type of teaching progressively disqualify the teacher for the vital leadership called for in a progressive organization. The fledgling who comes prepared to participate in genuinely creative teaching wilts in the formal atmosphere of the classroom dominated by textbook assignments, formal tests and recitations, grades, and credits. The value of student-teaching in such a situation, however efficiently managed, is strictly negative. There must be a way to resolve the present conflict between the progressive theory of the classes in education and the stultified practices of the training school.

What is true of the procedures of the coöperating school applies with even greater force to the problem of the curriculum. The persistence of nonfunctional materials in every major field of secondary-school instruction, illustrated by Mr. Fred Walcott's excellent article on English usage in a recent issue of *THE CLEARING HOUSE*, presents a contradiction with scientific standards which effectively obstructs the educative process so far as the student-teacher is concerned.

More serious than the dead weight of unscientific curricular materials, however, is the essential reactionary character of the social-studies program of the average public school. If we are to escape, even to a small extent, from the deadly cycle which places the school at the disposal of the dominant social group, we must release the teacher-training institution from the imperious restraints of the field organization.

Where does one find, for example, a secondary school which is not frankly experimental, where the program of studies has been closely integrated for the interpretation of contemporary culture? Let us take a convenient illustration from the field of science. The recent publication, *What Would Be the Character of a New War?* presents the startling picture of chemists fiendishly devising a new gas which would cause enemy troops desperately to tear off their masks, leaving themselves exposed to other gases which can destroy lung tissue and kill their writhing victims. The teaching of chemistry in the secondary school involves the grave responsibility of preparing citizens who will resolutely refuse to utilize the findings of science in any program which does not directly advance the interests of civilization. Unless the teacher-training institution is in a position to control the aim and content of training-school instruction, it would do better to abolish student-teaching forthwith.

Prospective teachers daily soak up learned dissertations on the fundamentals of the educative process only to find in the practice period that theory is evidently to be confined to a noble gesture on the part of education instructors and a pious wish on the part of the author of books about the curriculum. They do not learn to convert the new conceptions of education into genuine teaching experiences which should lay the foundations of a professional training worthy of the name. They are apprenticed to a system which, notwithstanding its deceptive surface patches of progressivism, is committed to a policy of imposition in behalf of the existing order.

Assuming the existence of an advanced theory of the functions of the school and of other social institutions, and its general acceptance by teachers' colleges and university departments of education, we cannot escape the conclusion that the training school must be directly associated with the classes in education or under the direct control of teach-

er-training officers. The plea that the school participate in the building of a new social order is futile when directed at the main body of teachers now in service (except in so far as these are driven through starvation and the treachery of bankers, industrialists, and politicians to espouse the new order), and it will continue to be futile so long as new teachers emerge from an apprenticeship to classroom teachers in the field organization. The rôle of the school in reconstruction is at best a difficult one, but there is a slim chance of success if young teachers are recruited from training schools in which the coöperative standard is central to the teaching program.

All of this implies, of course, not only the general extension of the campus training-school plan, but the strengthening and deep-

ening of the progressive influence of the instruction in education classes. It means that the determination and aggressiveness of the emancipated intellectuals will have to compensate for the inertia of comfortable, *bourgeois* pedagogues who with all their good intentions betray the masses whom public education is intended to serve. All about us the voices of fascism and militarism are gaining force, and we have little time to lose.

Leaders in education aware of the fundamental issues involved in the fearful struggle waging in society today will do well to abate somewhat their frenzied utterances concerning the responsibilities of the schools and turn their strength to the task of building the administrative organization of the school system of the new day.

## PROBLEMS OF THE TEACHER *in the* NEW SECONDARY SCHOOL

N. WILLIAM NEWSOM

*Teachers College, Temple University*

Instructors in courses on principles of secondary education, problems of the high school teacher, extra-instructional activities and the institutional life of the high school will find Dr. Newsom's new volume, released this month, a practical work-book and guide. A complete bibliography is given and the book is useable with current magazines or with any published text. Tests are included.

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# Articulation of Schools in Seattle

Catherine M. Deasy

EDITOR'S NOTE: Miss Deasy was one of the pioneer counselors in the junior high school. She equipped herself for this work by making a study of the work of a counselor and a counselor's activities in the leading junior high schools of the country. Her comments on the plans for articulating the work of the junior high school in Seattle with the elementary schools and senior high schools will be of interest to many of our readers. F. E. L.

OUR Seattle Principals' Association, made up as it is of administrators from the elementary, junior high, and high schools, represents an articulating force that has accepted the challenge which the Commission on the Articulation of the Units of American Education has made. This challenge has been sent out to all educators and interested laymen. It is, in the words of Thomas Jefferson, "Let us keep our eyes steadily on the whole system." This can best be done by a getting together of the administrators of the various school units for the purpose of adjusting the school to the child so that he may have a continuous, uninterrupted development. This plan requires a study of the child at each stage of his school experience.

We, in the junior high school, are concerned with his articulation from the elementary to the junior high school and from the latter to the senior high school.

## ARTICULATION WITH THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Our attempt to articulate with the elementary schools calls for a study of pupil contacts and teacher contacts. Under pupil contacts, the counselor visits the contributing elementary schools to give the incoming class a classification test and an orientation talk. Pupils, whose tests reach the lower levels, are given a Binet test by the Child Study Laboratory and recommendations are made concerning entrance to the junior high

school. Invaluable aid is rendered here.

A card, containing the elementary-school pupil's record from his first entrance to the system as to health, mental rating, and general achievement, is sent to the new school for future analysis.

On entering the junior high school, the new pupils find a definite plan of guidance to help them succeed in the light of their ability and talents. They are classified according to their mental rating and scholastic achievement. A special orientation program is given. Individual, educational, and vocational guidance is administered through conferences and classwork.

The orientation of the entering pupils includes group guidance about the ideals and activities of the new school. This is done through class meetings, clubs, roll-room conferences, and special assemblies. Information about the following is given: (1) the use of the school plant in its relation to work; (2) the observance of routine items that promote the welfare of the group; (3) the study habits required in the new situation so as to succeed in work; (4) the use of the library; (5) an acquaintance with the extracurricular activities of the school. I will illustrate the latter by a program given in our school.

## 7B ASSEMBLY PROGRAM OF THE ALEXANDER HAMILTON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

### I. Introduction .....Margaret Thornton (A ninth A pupil)

Theme: "To Get You Acquainted with the Different Activities of Our School"

- II. The Black Mask March ..Senior Orchestra
- III. A Thrift Play .....Banking Committee
- IV. A Talk on the Girls' Club .President of Club
- V. A Tumbling Act .....Boys' Gymnasium
- VI. A Talk on the Boys' Club .President of Club
- VII. The Blue and Gold ....School Paper Staff
- VIII. The Honor Pin Requirements ..Bill Mercer  
(An honor student)

- IX. Danish Folk Dance .....Girls' Gymnasium
- X. Interest Clubs, Their Aims, Activities, and Values .....Patricia Stapp  
(An outstanding student and activity worker)
- XI. The School Song .Orchestra and Glee Clubs

This pupil procedure is supplemented by teacher contacts. There are meetings at various times during the year of the junior-high-school principal and the elementary-high-school principal from his contributing district. The superintendents of both types of schools are represented and articulation difficulties are discussed. Some of these difficulties are curriculum adaptation, methods of approach to subject matter, evaluation of tests and their uses, and the value of the comparative grade sheet that is returned to the elementary schools at the end of the semester.

Curriculum adaptation is being made through adjusted subject content to fit the various ability groupings. Units of work covering the minimum essentials are given to the limited pupil, while a more enriched curriculum holds the interest of the brighter student.

Problems in the academic subjects of reading, English, arithmetic, and geography are being worked out. Although the emphasis in junior-high-school reading is on the appreciation side, more attention to the work-type reading seems necessary. To do this, standard reading tests are given to the new pupils and remedial work in the mechanics of the subject is started to suit individual and class needs. In English, we find that the elementary-school pupils need more practice in written than in oral work. A knowledge of sentence sense and the ability to punctuate the sentence are necessary. In the junior high school the approach to functional grammar is being made through the content subjects. All written work receives a content and an English grade. The unit work in grammar is based on the general needs of the class. In arithmetic, percentage has been moved up into the junior high school and is taught in the elementary

schools only to the extent of knowing the meaning of it. The lower school needs to place more emphasis on the following: (1) accuracy in the four fundamental operations; (2) more vivid drill on the decimal point; (3) more visualization of problem; (4) more functional drill work. The greater percentage of failures in geography over the other subjects seems to be due to different methods of approach used in the junior high and elementary schools. An accurate definition of technics and objectives was advised as a solution.

The elementary principals asked that intelligence tests be given in the sixth B grade in order that their schools might have more time to make adjustments before the pupil goes to the junior high school. On the recommendation of the head of the Child Study Laboratory, a new group intelligence test that would better classify pupils in arithmetic was selected.

In considering the value of the comparative grade standings sent to the various elementary schools at the end of the first semester, a report of the citizenship and effort grades was requested. The advisability of placing more emphasis upon these grades as a true measure of a pupil's standing was mentioned.

Further teacher contacts are made by meetings of the sixth A teachers with the counselor, the principal of the junior high school, the superintendent of the grades, and the superintendent of the junior high school, who acts as chairman. Types of citizenship attitudes and subject course adjustments are considered.

The sixth A teachers also visit the various classes and the counselor of the junior high school. A week ago, a sixth A teacher came to see me after school, a counselor, to discuss her class that is to come to us in February. She brought her class book and acquainted me with each individual of her group. When she was shown the first report cards of her fall class, she gave me some valuable information about this group

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that will help to reduce materially our failure percentage in January. Such conferences adjust many difficulties, save the State money, and tend to ensure continuous pupil growth.

#### ARTICULATION WITH THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Articulation with the senior high school is also made through contacts with the pupil and the senior-high-school faculty. In considering the pupil, successful articulation is achieved through three approaches: (1) by an interchange of junior- and senior-high-school methods. Some of the senior-high-school methods, such as home-study requirements, should be introduced in the last year of the junior high school. The senior high school should include in its program more of the junior-high-school guidance procedures, especially individual counseling. (2) By personnel records from junior to senior high school. (3) By pupil orientation to senior high school. This is done through contacts with the new school before leaving the junior high school. Visits from the boys' and girls' advisers and the boys' and girls' club presidents to the corresponding junior-high-school club groups are made. The vice-principal's conference with the counselor and pupils regarding program adjustments clarify course placement.

The orientation program within the new school is advanced in some high schools through freshman conferences. It serves to acquaint the pupils with the aims, ideals, and activities of their new environment, the senior high school. A knowledge of many things is necessary to the successful worker. He needs to know something about the school plant, the use of the library, the various departments of work, the new study requirements, and the meaning and purpose of the various school activities.

Then we have teacher contacts. There are administrative conferences of the principals of both schools with the superintendents of the two types of schools, with the junior-

high-school superintendent acting as coordinator. Difficulties experienced by pupils are discussed at these meetings and are frequently met through adjustments in curricula. As the senior high school now receives all the children of all the people, curricular adaptations to suit the needs of the underprivileged child are necessary. As a result of these conferences, subjects with adjusted content, such as English progress, world progress, and general mathematics, have been introduced. Besides these subjects, special classes and especially selected teachers are provided. The grading of this limited pupil in relation to the normal group has been considered. If the pupil has worked to his capacity, he is given a grade of "S." The study of approved educational procedures has been suggested to make transition less difficult from junior to senior high school. The four-year program outlined in the junior high school for the senior high school was thought worth while because it encouraged parents and pupils to look ahead and lay out some plan. Of the things desired by the senior high school of the entering junior-high-school pupil, good study habits rank first. The value of the personnel data in helping to solve pupil maladjustments has been another topic. The girls' advisers of the eight different high schools, together with the director of the Child Study Laboratory have met at various times with the junior-high-school counselors. Solution of adjustment problems related to girls have been their objective.

These administrative conferences are supplemented by intervisitation of subject teachers and joint teacher conferences. As outcomes of these meetings we find our local misunderstandings are disappearing and our curricular problems are receiving better adjustment.

The new Seattle English course of study, prepared by the superintendent's staff and representatives from each school unit, is a fine contribution to the articulation program in Seattle. Our superintendent recent-

ly pointed out its articulation possibilities when he said to the principals, "Take up this course with your teachers and study how it is related to the child's entire experience from the kindergarten through the twelfth grade."

We have now followed the attempts at articulation from the sixth grade of the elementary schools into the junior high school through counselor visits to the children in the elementary schools, recommendations from the psychology clinic, the seventh B orientation program, and the conferences of administrators and teachers. We are now obtaining a better classification of pupils and making more satisfactory curricular and

subject-matter adjustments to fit the child.

In transferring the student to the senior high school, we have mentioned the special adjustments made for the limited pupil, the value of personnel records, intervisitation of teachers and pupils as well as administrative and teacher conferences. Here, too, as outcomes we find that local difficulties are disappearing and new curricular adjustments are being perfected.

In conclusion, we may say that the articulation of school units is secured by broadening our vision to include a view of the child throughout his whole school career, or, in other words, by attempting to "keep our eyes on the whole school system."

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# School Law Review

Daniel R. Hodgdon

EDITOR'S NOTE: Questions on matters concerning public-school law will be answered in this department by Dr. Hodgdon. Address your inquiries to him in care of THE CLEARING HOUSE.

F. E. L.

## EMPLOYMENT OF TEACHERS

Where a statute gives a board of school control the power to employ teachers and such power is given whereby a teacher cannot be appointed, except upon a written contract, any verbal agreement to employ a teacher is not binding upon either the board or the teacher and either can withdraw from the agreement before the execution of the written contract. Under such circumstances a teacher is not employed until the written contract is executed, since the law makes it mandatory that a written contract exist between teacher and school board.

Lanier v. Calahoula Parish School Board, 154 So. 469.

Massie v. Cottonwood School District No. 36 of Nodaway County, 70 S.W. (2d) 1108.

## FUNDS OF AN OLD SCHOOL DISTRICT BELONG TO NEW DISTRICT

When an existing high-school district is abolished and a new high-school district formed, which is comprised of identical territory, tax money on hand and raised by the old school district may be expended by the new district. Where a school district is abolished the funds raised by taxation in such a governmental subdivision of the State are either returned to the voters or used for school needs through the instrumentality of its successors, if there be one.

Board of Education of McDowell County et al. v. Burgess, County Accountant. (Decided May 2, 1934.)

## OATH OF OFFICE FOR TEACHERS

Where a teacher is required by statute to file an oath of office prior to the execution of a contract, a teacher's contract does not become effective until such oath shall have been filed.

Peterson et al. v. Fugle et al., 31 P (2d) 1030. (Decided April 18, 1934.)

## TENURE OF TEACHER

A high-school teacher does not acquire any rights as a permanent teacher by reason of her service prior to the adoption of the Teacher Tenure Law.

Where a teacher serves full probationary period so as to be classed as a permanent teacher and re-

signs on account of ill health and is later reappointed to a teaching position as a probationary teacher her former years of service in the school system cannot be counted so as to give to such teacher the status of permanent teacher.

Montgomery v. Board of Education of Los Angeles City et al., 31P (2d) 243. (Decided April 3, 1934.)

## TRANSFER OF TEACHER

Where a teacher has been employed to teach in a certain grade in a school she may be transferred to another school but she must be given the same grade.

Giguere v. Patterson, cited in 31 P (2d) 807. Decided April 30, 1934, as determined in Kennedy v. Board of Education, 82 Cal. 483, 22 P. 1042.

## ILLNESS OF TEACHER

Where a teacher is ill for one week and absent from school, such absence does not preclude recovery of salary due under the contract as an abrogation of contract.

Giguere v. Patterson, Supra.

## FAILURE OF TEACHER TO ACT

Where a teacher has been prevented from teaching the failure of said teacher to demand the balance of her contractual salary until the expiration of the school year does not constitute laches so as to prevent full recovery.

Giguere v. Patterson, Supra.

## BOARD MEMBERS PRESENT AT HEARING

Where a statute requires: "No member of the Board shall qualify to vote who has not been present throughout the entire hearing," a board member is not disqualified from voting where he leaves the board table and there is nothing to show he did not leave the room or was out of hearing of what was going on, or that if he were out while certain proceedings were had, he returned and those proceedings were had *de novo* when he was present at the hearing.

Anderson v. Menzel et al., 31 P (2d) 1050. (Decided April 20, 1934.)

## RULES OF BOARD OF EDUCATION

Justice Lattimore of Texas discussing rules and regulations made by boards of education necessary to safeguard the health of pupils and teachers in a case decided January 27, 1934, said:

## Do you have this modern, up-to-date equipment for your General Science Course?

### EXPLORING THE WORLD OF SCIENCE

BY LAKE—HARLEY—WELTON

The *material* is modern: it includes all that is required by modern courses of study in general science. The *method* is modern: the book insures active learning by employing the technique of scientific research. The *organization* and *presentation* of material are modern: the book is in complete accord with the recommendations on the subject found in Part 11 of the Thirty-First Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Moreover, this book is modern in its adaptation to the learning abilities represented by students of a typical science classroom.

### A GENERAL SCIENCE WORKBOOK

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BY LAKE—WELTON—ADELL

"This is undoubtedly the cream of them all," writes one enthusiastic teacher. And another says, "It so stimulates and holds the interest of pupils that for the first quarter of this school year we have had no failures and our standards have been raised." Organized on the unit plan.



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"We heartily approve of the policy expressed in our State Constitution (art. 3, §56) 'Where a general law can be made applicable, no local or special law shall be enacted,'" and he commended it to the legislative authorities of the subdivisions of the State (boards of education) to refrain from passage of multitudinous ordinances (rules) which "conform to the ideas of some local crackpot, of what the Legislature should have done, resulting in putting our citizens in a hopeless maze of this and that until he must keep a chart to be sure where he is Brobdingnag or Lilliput each of which has its own laws about turning corners." Many boards might do well to heed this sound advice and let the State statute control where there is one applicable.

Booth v. Board of Education, 70 S. W. (2d) 350.  
(Decided March 16, 1934.)

#### VACCINATION

Vaccination against smallpox is an efficient and accepted act tending towards immunization. "These and other similar discoveries have brought preventive medicine into the sunlight, inspiring those who guard our health to strive to keep us from getting sick rather than cure us after we have become diseased. The law must lend a hand to assist and keep pace with the advancing discoveries of our age. We, of the bench, must go cautiously and follow only on trails laid out by the pioneers and well beaten by those following after them, but though we may not, in due regard for all our citizens, go side by side with them, we turn our faces in that direction, realizing the law must in some allied manner, march on."

Parents cannot compel boards of education to allow attendance of children without vaccination against smallpox on the ground that there was no epidemic of smallpox and none imminent and that existing health of the school district was good.

The possibility that a child should be exempt from vaccination because of his health does not entitle the parents to compel a school board to allow attendance of a child without vaccination where it is shown that no effort had been made to procure the attendance of the child who had been exempted from vaccination because of his health condition by the proper authorities or expert.

Parents are exempt from prosecution under the compulsory school-attendance law where school attendance is unwise because of the health condition and the board of education cannot be compelled to admit the child because of the compulsory attendance law.

Booth v. Board of Education, 70 S. W. (2d) 350.  
(Decided January 27, 1934.)



## Book Reviews

*High School Administration and Supervision*, by P. W. L. COX and R. E. LANGFITT.  
New York: American Book Company, 1934, xix + 689 pages.

The casual reader might assume that this book would be of interest only to administrators and supervisors, but this is not the case. One of the chief distinguishing features between a mere instructor and a professional teacher in his more complete understanding and appreciation of the organizations, processes, and relationships involved in the services which he performs. Consequently, this is a book with which not only every secondary-school principal but also every teacher should be familiar. It is admirably adapted for use as a basis for faculty discussions during the year, since it includes clear statements of educational philosophy, digests of progressive practice, concrete suggestions, and challenges for discussion.

Many principals and teachers are not located conveniently near universities where courses in education are available. Even those who are so fortunate in location will seldom come in contact with instructors whose experience and resources are so unusual as those of the present authors. The problems presented are treated in masterly fashion, without vague and wordy generalizations or lengthy elaborations of the obvious. Especially commendable is the avoidance of any tendency to crystallize present practice through surveys of conditions that are still evolving. Such terms as growth, general tendencies, independence, individual initiative, improvement of procedures, creative control, freedom from traditional formulas, encouragement of teachers, and promotion of activities—these phrases are typical of the spirit of the book.

In fact, it is doubtful if even Dr. Cox and Mr. Langfitt could have written such a book five years ago, so full is it of the spirit of progressive education. Too frequently administration and supervision lag behind progressive methods of teaching. Often, administrators who should be educational leaders are in reality being pushed from behind by the younger and more progressive members of their own teaching staffs. They have been too busy with their own immediate problems to develop a philosophy and a broad outlook on the current changes in policies, organizations, and methods. Consequently, a book such as this should bring the graduate school of education to many a principal who is in need of exactly such stimulating material with which to renew and strengthen his educational leadership among his faculty.

The sections of the book which deal with pupil personnel, pupil adjustment and guidance, student activities, and curriculum adjustments are especially good, as might be expected. Their influence upon secondary-school practices during the next decade is sure to be stimulating and helpful. But the authors do not stop with present problems: Part Nine, entitled *The Principal Expands His Job*, outlines the future possibilities of the principal. Then, lest it leave him in the air, too exalted with his position, the book brings him back to earth with Part Ten, entitled *The Beginning Principal*.

Every principal will be given a new impetus by reading this book, by comparing his philosophy, organization, and methods with those described by the authors, and by discussing its challenges with his teachers. Every teacher will be a better member of his team by achieving a clearer understanding and appreciation of the problems of the principal in the administration and supervision of the school.

RICHARD D. ALLEN

*Science Teaching*, by GEORGE W. HUNTER.  
New York: American Book Company, 1934, viii + 552 pages, \$2.50.

The field of science teaching has, for several years, felt the need of a work that would draw together, out of the great mass of experimental activity of the last twenty years, most of what is good and useful and interpret it in a functional way. Dr. Hunter has met this need in a masterful way for the junior- and senior-high-school levels.

*Science Teaching* contains a wealth of inspiring material that could come only from a long and rich experience such as the author can claim. It is not only the vital nature of the content that makes this book outstanding but it is organized and written in a manner that is at once challenging to the interest of the reader.

It sets forth the historical growth of science teaching leading up to present thinking in science objectives. It treats prevailing methods and techniques in a comparative way, pointing out strengths and weaknesses without expression of preference or bias. Chapters on the Method of Science, Motivation in Science, and on Supervised Study are full of professional inspiration. Its treatment of such themes as the textbook in science teaching, visual education, the science library and reference reading, and testing in the science program afford a potential gold mine of helps to the teacher for the enrichment of his work.

In general, the whole work renders a service

to the field of practical education of such potential value that the teacher of secondary science cannot afford to ignore it.

G. V. BRUCE

*La Locura de Amor. Tamayo y Baus*, edited by WILLIAM ARCHIBALD WHATLEY and RANDOLPH ARNOLD HAYNES. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934, 211 pages, \$1.00.

The editors have long desired "to see the great dramatist's masterpiece made available for college and high-school use in a form which would make it possible for the student to further his understanding of Spanish while increasing his literary appreciation."

The play is an attempt to give a measure of justice to the much maligned queen, Jane the Mad, daughter of Isabella the Catholic. Although many of the events narrated are not strictly historical, a true picture of the times is presented and most of the characters are historical. The general background is one with which we Americans are especially familiar. The reign of Jane bridges the gap between the death of the great Queen Isabella and the beginning of the manifold activities of the Hapsburg dynasty. The play recalls both periods. A concise introduction furnishes the necessary information on biographical, historical, and bibliographical matters.

The clear style of the author's prose, the swift movement of the plot, and the highly dramatic situations should make this a popular text for advanced students in high school and for college classes that have mastered the elements.

The notes and vocabulary are adequate. The exercises are carefully done but lack unity and direction. The twelve-point type makes a very readable page and the appearance of the book, as a whole, is very attractive.

W. M. BARLOW

*Grammar for Speaking and Writing*, by KENNETH BEAL. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1934, 489 pages.

Here are almost five hundred pages of technical grammar intended for high-school pupils. Slightly disguised in modish "smart" phraseology, it is nevertheless the "old-time religion," even down to a complicated system of sentence diagramming. Scores of drills and blank-filling guessing exercises enliven the pages. Despite his protestations of

usefulness and modernity, the author "goes in" for virtually all the out-moded notions of grammar. He says, for example, "Without verbs you cannot make sentences"—to which one verbless rejoinder would be "Oh yeah"? He states that the phrase "death of Lincoln" is better than "Lincoln's death"; he intimates that "I've got to study" is incorrect, and that "It is I" is always preferable to "It is me." The most useful chapters are those on spelling and punctuation, which are for the most part but slightly related to grammar. Those who believe that formal grammar knowledge is an open sesame to language ability will welcome *Grammar for Speaking and Writing*; the rest of us will wonder why it was written or published.

WALTER BARNES

#### BOOKS RECEIVED

*Education and the Emergent Man*, by WILLIAM C. BAGLEY. New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1934

*Children of the New Day*, by KATHERINE GLOVER and EVELYN DEWEY. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1934

Elementary Textbooks of 1931-1933. Part II of Society for Curriculum Study News Bulletin, vol. 5, no. 2, February 12, 1934

Secondary and Junior College Textbooks of 1931-1933. Part II, Society for Curriculum Study News Bulletin, vol. 5, no. 3, April 9, 1934

*What is This Opportunity School?* by FLETCHER H. SWIFT and JOHN W. STUDEBAKER. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1932

*The Tempest*, by WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE. Edited by MABEL A. BESSEY. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934

*Selected Lyrics from Wordsworth, Keats, and Shelley*, edited by Charles Swain Thomas. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1913

*Basic Principles in Education*, by HENRY C. MORRISON. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934

*The Historic Trail of the American Indians*, by THOMAS P. CHRISTENSEN. Iowa City: Laurance Press Company, 1933.

*Work-Test Book*, to accompany *Biology and Human Welfare*, by JAMES E. PEABODY. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934.

*The Copyreader's Workshop*, by H. F. HARRINGTON and R. E. WOLSELEY. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1934

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